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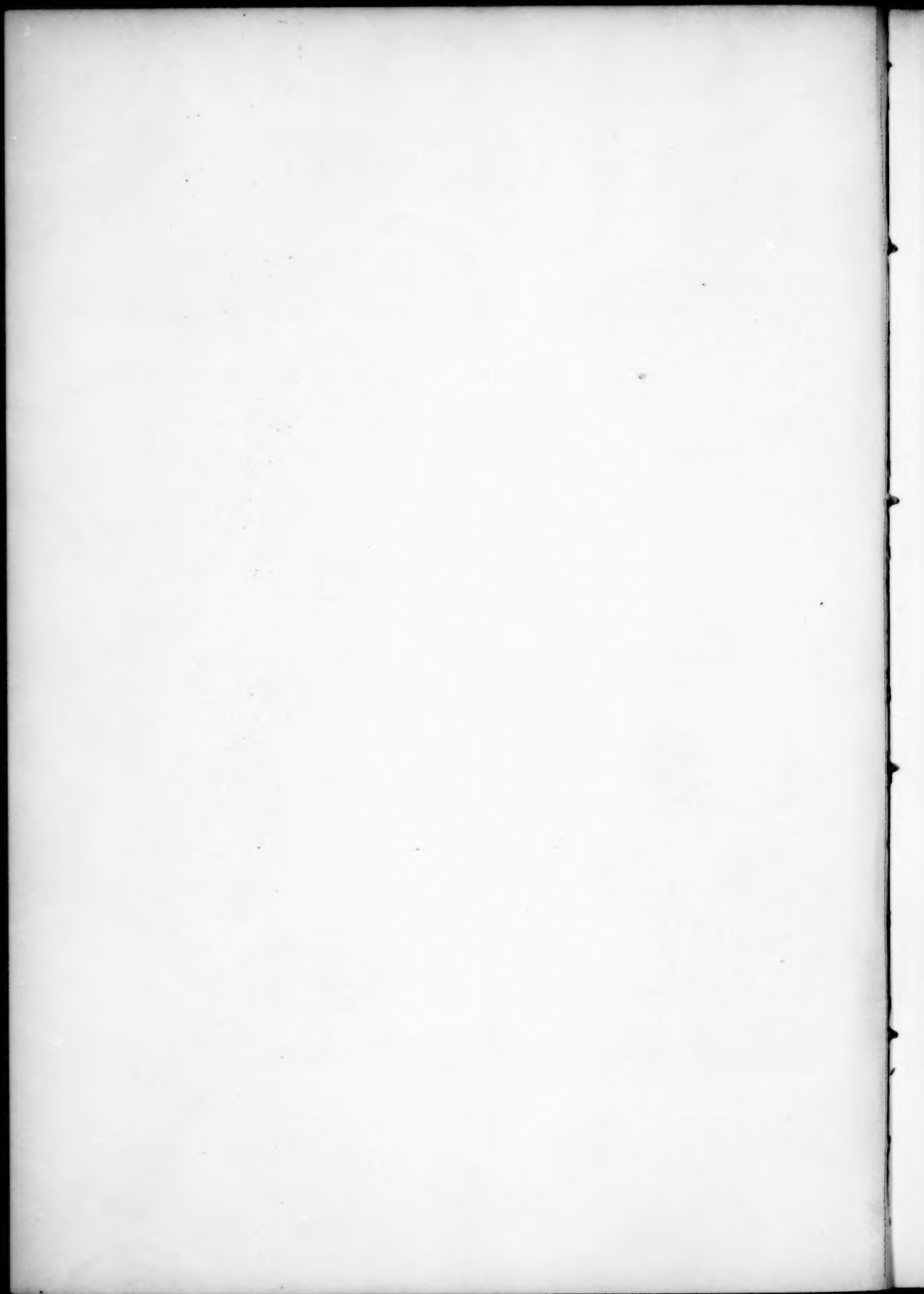
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THE PARKS AND RECREATION FACILITIES IN THE UNITED STATES

BY JOHN NOLEN,
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Herbert Spencer, in an address in New York City, said, "Exclusive devotion to work has the result that amusements cease to please; and when recreation becomes imperative life becomes dreary from lack of its sole interest,—the interest in business. Life is not for learning, nor is life for working, but learning and working are for life. In brief, I may say that we have had somewhat too much of the gospel of work. It is time to preach the gospel of relaxation." Something like this is the observation of nearly every thoughtful visitor to the United States. No characteristics of the American people are more striking than the habit of excessive work, "a whole lifetime of horrid industry," as Bagehot says, and our ignorance of the place of recreation and relaxation in a long, well-ordered and efficient life.

It may seem to readers of this number of *THE ANNALS* that we have made in recent years, and are now making, great progress in our public provision for recreation. We are, and yet, compared with the countries of Europe, the United States is still far behind both in the facilities that it possesses and in the way in which it utilizes them. It may be questioned whether the present increase of facilities for recreation greatly exceeds the increase in demand. Especially is this true with regard to children. The restoration of their rights to play is proceeding, but proceeding too slowly. It needs to be more widely recognized that play as a form of recreation is indispensable. There is still too much anxiety, too much greed.

We need more plain pleasures, for recreation rightly used is a resource for the common purposes of daily life that is entitled to rank with education, with art, with friendship. It is one of the means ordained for the promotion of health and cheerfulness and morality. As one of our modern philosophers has said, "Vice must be fought by welfare, not by restraint; and society is not safe until to-day's pleasures are stronger than its temptations," adding with

true optimism and sound insight, "Amusement is stronger than vice and can strangle the lust of it." Not only does morality thus rest back on recreation, but so does efficiency in every direction. One-half of efficiency and happiness depends upon vitality, and vitality depends largely upon recreation, especially the simple recreations of the open air.

The purpose of this introductory article is briefly to describe the nature and character of the parks and recreation facilities in the United States, to define roughly the place and function of national, state, and city parks, and to refer to a few of the general principles that do not fall so naturally to any one of the more specific articles which constitute this volume.

I. National Parks

Our national parks comprise great tracts in the far West which have been set aside by the federal government because of their altogether uncommon interest or great beauty. From the comparatively small area in the Yellowstone, proclaimed by President Harrison in 1891, we now have five great national parks, the Yellowstone, Yosemite, General Grant, Sequoia, and Mt. Rainier.¹ These include within their boundaries more than 40,000,000 acres.

The Yellowstone is a broad, wholesome wilderness on the summit of the Rocky Mountains, with its territory lying mostly in Wyoming, though encroaching upon the borders of Montana and Idaho. It has a total area of more than 8,000,000 acres; the broad central plateau is surrounded by high mountains, and in its very midst is the Yellowstone Lake, with its shore line of a hundred miles. The Grand Canyon of the Yellowstone is twenty miles in length and a thousand feet deep, and there are thousands of hot springs and hundreds of wild geysers. From the foot-hills and up the lower slopes of the mountains are extensive forests, interrupted only by lakes, meadows, or small burned-over places; in fact, this tree mantle covers nearly eighty-five per cent of the entire park.

¹The Grand Canyon of the Colorado River was named by President Roosevelt in 1908, as a National Monument, and may, I presume, be looked upon now as a park reservation. In his proclamation, the President stated that "The Grand Canyon of the Colorado River is an object of unusual scenic interest, being the greatest eroded canyon within the United States, and it appears that the public interests would be promoted by reserving it as a National Monument with such other land as is necessary for its proper protection."

The Yosemite, only one hundred and forty miles distant from San Francisco, is in the Sierra Nevada Range of California, and is thirty-six miles in length and forty-eight in breadth. It includes generous samples of the wondrous treasures of the Sierras, and in its very heart is the famous Yosemite Valley. Here also is the Hetch-Hetchy Valley, which is again in danger of being destroyed. Year after year attacks have been made on this park under the guise of the development of natural resources, and at the last session of Congress the most determined attack of all was made by the city of San Francisco in its attempt to get possession of this valley as a reservoir site, thus destroying its scenic integrity merely for the sake of saving money to the people of San Francisco. Congress should refuse this request; furthermore, it should adopt laws that would put an end to such assaults on our national parks. In the lower section of the Yosemite are the coniferous forests which surpass all forests of the kind in the world, not only in the size and beauty of the trees, but in the number of assembled species.

The Sequoia is a relatively small park in the Sierras of California, which lies to the south of the Yosemite. As it stands, it includes by far the largest and most important section of big trees. Yet this area should be increased to conform with the boundaries established by nature, for then it would be not only better in itself, but would comprise nine-tenths of all the big trees in existence.

The General Grant is the smallest of the national parks and is located in California a little to the north of the Sequoia. Like the latter, it is essentially a preserve of big trees.

The Mt. Rainier Park is a portion of the region immediately surrounding the mountain, which has been set aside from the forest reserve. It is situated in the State of Washington. Of all the mountains along the Pacific Coast, Mt. Rainier is the noblest in form, has the most interesting forest cover and, with the exception of Mt. Shasta, is the tallest. Its forests reach to a height of a little over 6,000 feet and above this is a wealth of Alpine flora. As in the case of the Sequoia, this park is too small, and should include a more generous share of the surrounding forest reserve.

The purposes of forests and parks should not be confused. Forest lands are selected and afterwards maintained primarily with regard to the growth of timber and the protection and regulation of the water supply,—purposes of immense importance to permanent

prosperity. Other purposes than these are incidental and, if considered at all, are subordinate. In the case of parks, however, the main purposes are the preservation and enhancement of natural beauty and the provision for recreation. Park purposes other than these may, it is true, be taken into account, but they must be quite incidental. Thus the minor purposes of forests may correspond somewhat with the major purposes of parks, and vice versa; but the main and essential purposes of one are altogether different from the main and essential purposes of the other, and any confusion of them is sure to lead to waste, misunderstanding and disappointment.

These national parks are unequaled in wonder, beauty and extent by all the other recreation facilities in the United States, but if they are to serve their great purposes, they must have a more stable, more consistent, more scientific, and more artistic policy of development. The present division of authority and the lack of permanency of control cannot be expected to yield the best results. William E. Curtis, who contributes a special article on "Our National Parks" in this number of *THE ANNALS*, pointed out some time ago on the occasion of a visit to "the Yellowstone" the necessity for action in this direction when he said that "There ought to be a commission of broad-minded men with a thorough knowledge of parks and public resorts in Europe and other countries, with experience in handling large affairs and with artistic tastes, who shall be authorized by Congress to investigate the conditions of the park and lay out a permanent plan for its protection and improvement, for the location of hotels and other buildings, for the construction of roads, etc., and they should revise the regulations so that the greatest public playground in the world may be enjoyed to its full extent by the people of the United States for whom it is intended."

It is surprising, in looking at the map of the United States, to find that all the parks of the nation are in the far West. If one were unfamiliar with the physiography and beauty of the country, the natural inference would be that there is nothing worth preserving in the other sections. That view, however, would be far from the truth. In several other sections, and especially in the great Appalachian Mountain system of the East, there is a unique opportunity to add to the attractiveness and the geographical range of the nation's park possessions; and to do it at reasonable cost. If the parks in the West are justified—and who questions it—parks in the

East would be. There is an imperative call for an even larger and especially for a better balanced system of national parks, and the time for action has arrived.

II. *State Parks*

Although state parks are never likely to have the great acreage of national parks, they may prove to be more generally useful as recreation grounds for the great body of the people. Outside the cities the states are most often the natural units to act effectively in the establishment of large natural parks. As a rule, the topographical feature, lake, river, valley, or mountain, is more or less complete within a state, and the people of the entire state are concerned in the preservation of these features. The state, too, is financially strong enough to move successfully, securing before it is too late great tracts of five, ten, or twenty thousand acres according to the opportunity and need in each particular case. As these acquisitions are much more in the nature of investment than expense, the land increasing rather than decreasing in value, the cost should not be met from current income, but by state bond issues for periods of forty or fifty years, thus distributing the cost of the land among several generations.

Some states have appreciated the logic of this situation. Massachusetts, for example, awoke to its importance nearly a score of years ago. A body of public-spirited men then petitioned the legislature, stating that the seashores, river banks, the mountain tops, and almost all the finest parts of the natural beauty of Massachusetts, were possessed by private persons, whose private interests often dictated the destruction of this beauty or at least the exclusion of the public from the enjoyment thereof. The inquiry inaugurated as a result of this petition is full of suggestion and warning to newer or more sparsely settled states. With reference to the ocean shore, for example, the Massachusetts agent found a great population on land hedged away from the beach and all conditions pointing to a time, not remote either, when nobody could walk by the sea in Massachusetts without the payment of a fee, as was formerly the case for a glimpse of Niagara. Resulting from this and somewhat similar movements, the State of Massachusetts has already acquired some large and valuable holdings, first through direct action of the state appropriating money for the purchase of park

lands, secondly through state-appointed commissions, and thirdly through the trustees of public reservations, a board created to receive and care for gifts of land to the state.

The achievements of a few other states are equally encouraging. New York has a notable, even if incomplete and threatened, possession at Niagara Falls. It has a good park in the Adirondack Mountains, in Watkins Glen, and Stony Point, in the great gorge of the Genesee River, and in co-operation with New Jersey, an extremely useful reservation in the Palisades of the Hudson River, which, if the recent offer of Mrs. E. H. Harriman and others is accepted, is likely to be extended to include 25,000 acres or more, making it the largest and noblest of all the state parks and one of the finest public reservations in the world.² California, not content with the big national parks within its borders, has invested \$250,000 in a state park near Boulder Creek, thereby acquiring a sample of redwoods as they have been for 10,000 years and one which may be preserved for all time to come. Minnesota, Michigan, Kansas, and one or two other states, I believe, have shown regard for some of their natural resources by making public reservations of beautiful and interesting scenery.

But in state parks the real lead, so far as a policy is concerned, must be accorded to Wisconsin. This is not surprising, for the people of that commonwealth have a reputation for sound and progressive ideas and an unusual devotion to measures which promise to promote the common welfare. Two years ago, in accordance with the action of the state legislature, the governor appointed a state park board of three members. That board with its landscape adviser made a systematic examination of Wisconsin's resources in scenery, with the definite purpose of securing for the people what was best and most distinctive. The report was presented to the

²Mrs. E. H. Harriman, in compliance with the wishes of her late husband, has offered the State of New York for a state park 10,000 acres of beautiful land on the Hudson near her home and a million dollars. To this munificent gift, John D. Rockefeller and J. Pierpont Morgan have added a half million dollars each; others have subscribed sums that will bring the total to over two and a half million dollars. These gifts are conditioned upon the State of New York appropriating another two and a half million dollars, making five million dollars in all, and 10,000 acres of land for the extension of the Palisade Park. The proposal is magnificent in itself and illustrates the great appeal that state parks will make both to individuals of wealth and to the people of the states. Governor Hughes gives his hearty endorsement to this project and recommends the appropriation by the state of the sum asked for, the money to be provided by the issue of state bonds.

legislature last winter, and a liberal appropriation made at once to enable the state park board to begin the acquisition of land. Some 3,800 acres in Door County, including eight miles of beautiful bay shores, have already been purchased, and before the work is completed, the Wisconsin state parks will probably include at least one example of each type of its wonderfully beautiful natural scenery.

The requirements of state parks may be conveniently summarized under five heads: (1) They should, as a rule, be large, otherwise they cannot be used by great numbers of people without the destruction of the very qualities most essential to their purpose. (2) They should be accessible, not to the degree that city parks are, but accessible to the people of a state by train or boat or vehicle, within reasonable time and at reasonable expense. (3) The air and climate of sections within which state parks are located should be salubrious and the situation healthful. (4) The property for state parks should be moderate in cost. Seldom would a state be justified in paying an average of over a hundred dollars an acre for a tract of any considerable size. Not only should the first cost be low, but as a rule the property should be of such a character as to require relatively small expenditure for construction or maintenance. (5) Finally, the site for a state park should, above all, have decided and uncommon charm, a distinction among landscapes, an irresistible appeal to the nature lover. Here there should be no room for doubt, for failure in this point means complete failure. State parks must be unmistakably beautiful; they must present to the enjoyment of all some consistent unspoiled type of landscape.

Corresponding in some respects with state parks and in other respects with city parks are those parks established during the last decade or two, under the jurisdiction of counties, townships or metropolitan districts. They illustrate the value of co-operation, and are a recognition of the advantages of joint action. The best example of a county organization is the Essex County Park Commission of New Jersey, which has outlined one of the best systems in the country and already secured and improved under expert guidance over 3,500 acres. Its greatest lack at present is an adequate system of connecting parkways. The most successful illustration of the metropolitan district organization is the Boston Metropolitan Park Commission. Organized in 1892, this system now includes

over 10,000 acres of parks and public reservations, 30 miles of river banks, 8 miles of seashore, and 27 miles or more of boulevards and parkways. All these recreation grounds are now organized into a unified system which surpasses in extent not only anything which this country has produced, but in many respects anything similar in Europe as well.

III. *City Parks*

City parks are much better known than national parks or state parks. Every city worthy of the name has public parks of some sort, and they are now recognized as a necessity of city life,—just as streets and water and schools are a necessity. They contribute to the pleasure and health of urban populations more than any other recreative feature, and furnish the most necessary and available antidote to the artificiality, confusion, and feverishness of life in cities. At the present time the value of parks and open spaces in towns and cities is very generally appreciated. It is recognized that such facilities as parks afford are not only desirable, but increasingly necessary; in fact indispensable. In a vague way there is approval, too, of a large increase in both parks and playgrounds. But few even of the more enlightened communities appear yet to understand with any clearness that these open spaces in cities are of great variety, that they are, or should be, selected and developed by experts to serve essentially different purposes, and that the failure to appreciate this fact, and to keep it constantly in mind, leads to great waste and inefficiency in our public grounds.

The term "parks" is used in a loose sense to cover all public grounds. City squares, commons, public gardens, playgrounds, neighborhood centers, parkways, the great outlying reservations, and parks proper,—all are loosely termed "parks." City squares, commons and public gardens are usually of small size, and are found in the business as well as the residential sections of cities. Their practical functions are to furnish agreeable views for those passing by or through them, to provide a pleasant resting place for those who take the time to use them in this manner, and in some cases to afford an appropriate and agreeable foreground to public or semi-public buildings. Playgrounds are different from squares, and should be designed primarily for play. They are usually divided for convenience into three classes, those for little tots, those for

children of the school age, and those for older boys and men or for girls and women. In no other department of public recreation has there recently been such a development. The Year Book of the Playground Association of America, just issued, shows that out of 950 cities and towns in the United States having a population of 5,000 or over, 336 maintain supervised playgrounds, and the actual number of playgrounds conducted in these cities will number nearly 2,000.

One of the most important results of the study that has been given to play and playgrounds is the very general appreciation that the play leader rather than elaborate equipment is the essential feature. Reliable figures, showing the appropriations for playgrounds, are incomplete, but the returns from one-half of the cities show an expenditure in 1909 of over a million dollars. But before we have a widespread and efficient system, in which the true function of play is recognized, this sum will have to be greatly increased. "Only in the modern city," writes Jane Addams, "have men concluded that it is no longer necessary for the municipality to provide for the insatiable desire for play. In so far as they have acted upon this conclusion, they have entered upon a most difficult and dangerous experiment, and this at the very moment when the city has become distinctly industrial, and daily labor is continually more monotonous and sub-divided. We forget how new the modern city is, and how short the span of time in which we have assumed that we can eliminate public provision for recreation."

Parkways and boulevards are agreeable promenades in themselves, and serve usually as pleasant means of access to parks from the various parts of the city or from one park to another. A parkway is apt to include more breadth of turf or ground planted with trees and shrubbery than a boulevard, giving it a more park-like character and inducing a less formal treatment of the roads, paths, and accessory features. Boulevards are usually arranged more formally with rows of shade trees and parallel ways for pedestrians and vehicles. But the chief feature of a city park system is the large park, comprising in most cases from two hundred to a thousand acres or even more. Its main purpose is to place within the reach of the people of a city the enjoyment of such a measure as is practicable of pleasing rural scenery; and the justification of its size, interfering as it does with streets and other city developments, is

the necessity for spaciousness in the production of scenery that is broad and natural and beautiful. One of the chief problems of the landscape architect is to make these parks available and useful to great numbers of people without destroying the natural appearance of their scenery,—the main purpose for which they have been created.

The conviction is steadily spreading that a city needs not only to provide itself with each class of recreation grounds, but that these grounds should be outlined, acquired, and developed as a *system*, each part having relation to every other part. Just as a city needs a street system, a school system, a water system, and systems to provide for its other municipal activities, so it needs a comprehensive, well-distributed, well-developed system of parks and pleasure grounds. As yet few cities have been able to secure a well-balanced park plan. Some cities have a liberal provision of public squares, but few playgrounds and parks, and no parkways. Others have large parks and boulevards, but no playgrounds, while still others have parks and boulevards and playgrounds, but few public squares. Many examples could be given of the unsatisfactory and incomplete and one-sided way in which our so-called park systems have been developed. The public grounds of practically all our cities have been selected and improved by isolated and desultory proceedings. The result in most cases has led to an unnecessary waste of money and opportunity. Happily, there are exceptions. A few of the larger cities have, with the aid of expert advice, worked out thoughtful and consistent plans, and in the Middle West even the smaller cities have conceived a system, and gradually, piece by piece, this system is being patiently executed.

One of the greatest influences now operating toward a better provision for parks and other recreation facilities in this country is city planning. The movement is spreading rapidly from city to city and from town to town. Its aims are many, but primarily it is an attempt to forecast and provide for the requirements of the city as a whole, and to anticipate by a reasonable period the improvements and developments which such a forecast shows to be desirable and in some form or other inevitable. City planning is, therefore, an effort to save waste—waste due to thoughtless delay, to haphazard procedure and to ill-considered plans. When city planning is wise it works in harmony with local conditions, takes account of

topography, and responds to the peculiar social and economic influences of the locality. One of its dominant purposes always, however, is to promote, to extend, and to make more adequate and more perfect the provisions for public recreation.

The conclusions that appear justified by this brief survey of parks and pleasure grounds are: (1) That the national parks are of inestimable worth, but their greatest value requires a somewhat different administration, and the existing parks in the West should be supplemented and balanced by parks in other sections. (2) That the comparatively small beginnings of state parks should be carried to their legitimate developments until every state in the Union has a comprehensive system, embracing its most valuable and characteristic natural scenic resources. (3) That city parks should be selected with more discrimination, designed with more skill, greatly increased in area, and developed in a more co-ordinate fashion.

But parks, even in the broad sense in which the term is here used, do not constitute the only facility for public recreation. Music and the drama, art galleries, scientific museums, zoological gardens,—these offer most important and efficient facilities for public recreation. Unfortunately, many American towns and cities are unprovided with these facilities, and even when they exist, they are often inadequate. The people are not yet willing to appropriate money in sufficient sums to acquire and maintain parks or to provide for such other recreation facilities as those mentioned. The action of the Paris Chamber of Deputies a month ago, authorizing a loan of \$180,000,000 for an elaborate scheme of improvements, has no proportional parallel in this country. As an illustration of the scale of expenditure here, a bond issue of the Providence Metropolitan Park Commission may be cited. After great effort approval was secured for a loan of \$250,000 for the development of the Providence metropolitan district, which contains a population of nearly half a million people. According to the official report of this commission, the annual cost per capita of this bond issue is not quite equal to "that of three striped sticks of candy."

Private individuals have in some cities made generous gifts to the recreation of the people, and in other cities, notably New York, there has been a successful co-operation between public appropriations and private wealth. This is most encouraging and is likely to

continue, for there is an increased appreciation of the intimate relation between public recreation and the public welfare. One of the main conclusions of the committee that investigated the social evil in New York City a few years ago under the chairmanship of the late William H. Baldwin, Jr., was the necessity of "furnishing, by public provision or private munificence, of purer and more elevating forms of amusement to supplant the attractions of the low dance-halls, theatres, and other similar places of entertainment that only serve to stimulate sensuality and to debase the taste. The pleasures of the people need to be looked after far more earnestly than has been the case hitherto. If we would banish the kind of amusements that degrade, we must offer to the public in this large cosmopolitan city, where the appetite for pleasure is keen, some sort of suitable alternatives."

In conclusion, it may be said with regard to facilities for public recreation, as with regard to so many other matters, that, first of all, a clearer conception is needed of what is possible. We must escape from certain narrow, petty, and conventional views, low standards and ungenerous ideals. We must see the great possibilities of recreation, form a more definite policy, and bring to bear upon its execution a greater measure of wisdom, energy, and wealth.

TYPICAL PARKS
National, State, County, and City



OUR NATIONAL PARKS AND RESERVATIONS

BY WILLIAM ELEROY CURTIS,

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Within the last few years three kinds of reservations have been authorized upon the public domain which now include 199,672,240 acres, and fifty-four game and bird reservations under the control of the Agricultural Department for the protection and preservation of the wild game and feathered denizens of our land. Several other reservations are proposed, including one for the permanent pasturage of the last large herd of elk which have been evicted from their hereditary winter grazing grounds in Wyoming, south of the Yellowstone Park, and find it difficult to get food enough upon the ranges that have not been taken up by farmers or eaten off by domestic stock.

There are four kinds of reserves: the National Forests, which embrace 194,505,325 acres in the United States proper, Alaska and Porto Rico; the national parks, which include 3,624,472 acres; national game preserves embracing about one million acres; national monuments which include 1,542,443 acres, and the numerous small bird preserves which have not been surveyed except in a few cases.

After years of labor by the American Institute of Archæology, the Geological Survey, the General Land Office and patriotic individuals, an act of Congress was passed in 1906 authorizing the President "to declare by proclamation, historic landmarks, prehistoric structures and other objects of historic and scientific interest situated upon the lands controlled or owned by the United States, to be national monuments, and to reserve, as a part thereof, parcels of land, the limits of which in all cases shall be confined to the smallest area compatible with the proper care and management of the objects to be protected." All persons are forbidden, under heavy penalty, to injure, destroy or excavate at such places except for the benefit of museums, universities, colleges and other scientific or educational institutions, under proper permits from the proper officers. Under this law twenty-three national monuments have been created.

National Forests

Until a few years ago the great timber areas of the United States were everybody's field for plunder, and the mountains and plains were rapidly stripped of trees. The consequences, as shown by the floods and droughts along the water courses that were fed by springs formerly sheltered by this timber, as well as the appalling wastage by forest fires and timber pirates, finally impressed Congress so that a law was passed authorizing the President to withdraw from sale and settlement such forest areas as in his opinion should be protected and preserved.

Under the authority of that act National Forests have been created in the several states as follows:

States.	Acres.
California	27,968,510
Montana	20,389,696
Idaho	20,099,029
Oregon	16,221,368
Colorado	15,698,439
Arizona	15,258,861
Washington	12,065,500
New Mexico	10,971,711
Wyoming	8,998,723
Utah	7,436,327
Nevada	5,109,415
Arkansas	3,189,781
South Dakota	1,294,440
Minnesota	1,204,486
Florida	674,891
Nebraska	556,072
Kansas	302,387
Michigan	163,373
Oklahoma	60,800
North Dakota	13,940

Total area of one hundred and forty-seven National
Forests 167,677,749

In addition to these reserves within the boundaries of the United States proper, there are two in Alaska with a total of 26,761,626 acres, and one in Porto Rico of 65,950 acres, making a grand total of 194,505,325 acres in one hundred and fifty National Forests.

For the convenience of administration this vast territory is divided into one hundred and forty-nine national forests, each in charge of a supervisor. In all cases the supervisor is selected for his wide practical knowledge of the West, and of the lumbering and grazing particularly.

For each of the many lines of work to be carried on in the forest, men with special experience are required. Those who prepare and tend the nurseries must be experienced in raising and caring for young trees. The lumberman, who cruises and estimates timber, helps to plan logging operations, sees that the scaling is correctly done and that the rules for logging are properly observed, must be an experienced and capable woodsman. The ranger patrols his district of the forest and sees that fire and trespass are prevented, that the range is not overgrazed, that logging regulations are enforced, and that the privileges granted by permit for the use of the various forest resources are not abused. He also must be hard-headed, practical, and thoroughly honest, an able-bodied citizen of the West, with plenty of experience in all the problems with which he may have to deal.

The National Forests are administered by the Forest Service, a branch of the Department of Agriculture. The forester, with an assistant forester in charge of each of the four branches, timber sales and planting, grazing, accounts and timber testing, has general supervision, while for field administration the western half of the United States is divided into six districts under district foresters, with headquarters at Missoula, Denver, Albuquerque, Ogden, San Francisco, and Portland.

National Parks

The national parks and reservations under the jurisdiction of the Interior Department are as follows:

	Acres.
Yellowstone, in Wyoming, Montana and Idaho.....	2,142,720
Yosemite, in California	719,622
Sequoia, in California	161,597
General Grant, in California	2,536
Mount Rainier, in Washington	207,360
Crater Lake, in Oregon	159,360
Wind Cave, South Dakota	10,522
Sully's Hill, in North Dakota	780

	Acres.
Platt, in Oklahoma	848
Casa Grande Ruin, in Arizona	480
Mesa Verde, in Colorado	42,376
(Five-mile strip for protection of ruins).....	175,360
Hot Springs Reservation, in Arkansas	911
Total	3,624,472

National Monuments

	Acres.
Devil's Tower, Wyoming	1,152
Montezuma Castle, Arizona	160
Petrified Forest, Arizona	60,776
El Morro, New Mexico	160
Chaco Canyon, New Mexico	20,520
Muir Woods, California	295
Lewis and Clark Cavern, Montana	160
Tumacacori, Arizona	10
Navajo, Arizona	600
Mukuntuweap, Utah	15,360
Shoshone Cavern, Wyoming	210
Natural Bridges, Utah	2,420
Gran Quivira, New Mexico	160
Cinder Cone, California	5,120
Lassen Peak, California	1,280
Gila Cliff Dwellings, New Mexico	160
Tonto, Arizona	640
Grand Canyon, Arizona	818,560
Pinnacles, California	2,080
Jewel Cave, South Dakota	1,280
Wheeler, Colorado	300
Mount Olympus, Washington	610,560
Oregon Caves, Oregon	480
Total	1,542,443

The twelve national parks above enumerated are made by act of Congress, and include the big trees of California, a health resort at Hot Springs, Ark., several ruined cities in the southwest, a collection of prehistoric cliff dwellings, and several scenic wonders and natural phenomena which should be forever preserved from desecration; Mount Rainier in Washington; and Crater Lake, in the southern part of the Cascade range of Oregon, which is the deepest

body of fresh water known. It occupies the crater of an extinct volcano at the top of a mountain 9,000 feet high, and is encircled by a continuous wall of cliffs from one thousand to two thousand feet in height. There is no break in the wall, which is so nearly perpendicular that it cannot be scaled except in a few places.

Wind Cave, in the southwestern part of South Dakota, east of the Black Hills, near the town of Hot Springs, is a remarkable natural curiosity as well as a health resort. The interior of the cave has never been thoroughly explored. It is like a honeycomb with more than three thousand rooms or cells and more than a hundred miles of corridors. Some one has likened it to a sponge, several miles in length, depth and breadth, composed of narrow passages connecting at different points with caverns large enough to enclose the capitol of the United States, and beautifully decorated with feathers and crystals of gypsum, that glisten like diamonds. The atmosphere in the cave is so dry that it is recommended as a specific for diseases of the throat, nose and lungs.

The Casa Grande Ruins, in Arizona, are the largest and best example of prehistoric architecture in this country. Although partially destroyed by vandals and the tooth of time, fifty-seven large rooms still remain, which have been put in order under the direction of the National Museum.

The Yosemite Valley now belongs to the national government, having been receded by the State of California in May, 1905. It was accepted by Congress that year in a clause inserted in the sundry appropriation bill, but some of the California state commissioners, who had been opposed to the recession, refused to surrender the property until formal resolution of acceptance was adopted by Congress, June 11, 1906.

Since the government took possession of the Yosemite a steam railroad has been built to connect with the Southern Pacific and the Sante Fe lines at the town of Merced. It carries visitors to a station called El Portal, at the boundary of the park. A traveler can leave San Francisco in the morning, reach El Portal without change of cars in the evening, stay over night at a comfortable hotel and take a stage ride of fourteen miles through the valley to the Sentinel Hotel in about four hours. It is also possible to go in from Raymond by stage via Wawona in two days as formerly. Since the railway was opened in 1907 there has been a very large increase

of visitors, but they are still amazingly few in number compared with those who go to Europe every year, and obtain very much less enjoyment at a very much larger price. The Yosemite will hereafter be open in the winter.

At the recent session, Congress passed an act authorizing an exchange for the Calaveras big tree forest, which was owned by a Minnesota lumber king, patriotic enough to wait patiently for years for Congress to accept a grove of the most majestic sequoia trees in the world for timber land of equal value elsewhere on the public domain.

The chain of parks in that section of California belonging to the government now embraces 882,000 acres, including the Mariposa, the Sequoia, General Grant and Calaveras groves of big trees, all of which should be connected by perfect roadways so that the public can enjoy their wonders without discomfort and fatigue. They are all within a forest reserve of nearly 4,000,000 acres, which will belong perpetually to the government.

The House Committee on Public Lands has reported favorably a bill which passed the Senate last May, creating Glacier National Park, west of the summit of the Rocky Mountains and south of the Canadian boundary line in Montana. It includes about 1,300 square miles of the finest mountain scenery upon the continent, averaging about 10,000 feet above the sea level, containing about two hundred and fifty lakes and sixty-eight glaciers.

Those who are interested in this enterprise are confident that the Canadian government will reserve a similar area on its side of the border; it has already made a beginning which will make this the greatest park for natural beauty and the greatest preserve for wild animals in the civilized world. It is proposed to put it under the jurisdiction of the Secretary of Agriculture, who already administers it as a National Forest, and who will permit shooting and fishing at such times and under such rules and regulations as he deems best. There is practically no agricultural land and no mineral-bearing formations of commercial value, but in the canyons are roaring streams fed by melting ice and snow, and there are more than two hundred and fifty lakes which abound in fish of many varieties. The region is inhabited by a greater variety of large wild animals than can be found in any other one district of the United States. Mountain goats and sheep, grizzly and black bears,

caribou, elk, moose and two kinds of deer are found as well as a great variety of other mammals and birds. The animals use it as a breeding ground, because they can find perfect protection. The waters flow in three directions, finding the Hudson Bay, the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean. Some of the mountains are of unparalleled beauty, one of the highest peaks having been named in honor of the late Grover Cleveland.

"Cinder Cone" is a great lava field of extraordinary scientific interest within the national forest of California, and is, perhaps, the best illustration we have of volcanic phenomena.

The Gila Cliff dwellings in New Mexico are among the most perfect and extensive remains of the prehistoric race which once occupied, irrigated and cultivated the southwestern section of this country. They are situated in the canyon of the Gila river in the southwestern part of New Mexico.

The Grand Canyon of the Colorado is well known. It is in many respects the grandest natural spectacle in the world.

Jewel Cave is situated within the Black Hills national forest, in Custer county, South Dakota, thirteen miles southwest from the town of Custer, and was so named because metallic stones of brilliant colors are found there in large quantities. It was discovered in 1900 by two brothers named Mishaud, who were prospecting for gold in that vicinity, and has been explored for several miles. A strange phenomena is the action of the wind, which alternately and with great regularity, blows in and blows out of the cave.

Lassen Peak, or Mount Diabolo, marks the southern terminus of a long line of extinct volcanoes in the Cascade range of mountains in California, and is not only a landmark of great beauty, but is of special importance in tracing the history of the volcanic phenomena in that vicinity.

The Pinnacles, about nine miles due east from the Southern Pacific Railroad station Soldad, San Benito county, California, are a collection of jagged peaks of impressive grandeur and much scientific interest.

The Tonto national monument is a group of prehistoric ruins located in the region commonly known as the Tonto drainage basin, Gila county, Arizona, and is of great ethnological and educational interest as a relic of vanquished civilization.

The Wheeler national monument is near Wagon Wheel Gap

station on the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad in California, near the summit of the continental divide, at an elevation of 11,500 feet. The fantastic forms, resulting from the erosion of rock and soil, make the spot of exceptional beauty. The numerous winding canyons and pinnacles form striking picturesque effects such as are seldom found elsewhere. Historic interest attaches to the place because an expedition led by General John C. Fremont was overtaken by disaster in that immediate vicinity. Skeletons of mules, bits of harness and camp equipage have been discovered near the spot.

The Devil's Tower is a conspicuous landmark in the form of a monster obelisk, composed of lava and granite, rising 1,100 feet on the banks of the Belle Fourche river, in the Black Hills, in southeastern Wyoming. The obelisk is 376 feet wide at the top and 796 feet wide at the base. It is associated with many Indian legends and more than one fierce battle has been fought around it by the savages.

The Petrified Forest near Flagstaff, Arizona, is well known. It is a few miles from the tracks of the Santa Fe railroad and covers a large area which is strewn with the trunks and limbs of trees that have been turned into stone by some mysterious process of nature. It is unique among the freaks of nature.

Montezuma's Castle is an enormous ruin situated about 600 feet above the bed of a creek forty-eight miles south of Flagstaff, Arizona, and 125 miles north of Phoenix, Arizona. It contains twenty large and eight small rooms, besides a number of closets and alcoves evidently used for storerooms. What the original dimensions of the building were is purely conjectural, but the structure remaining measures forty-eight feet from the base to the summit, being five stories in height, and about one hundred feet long. Other ruins of smaller dimensions are found in the same locality which were built and occupied by an extinct race that had considerable knowledge of mechanics and an advanced civilization. When and how it vanished from the earth is unknown, but it is conceded by archaeologists that this is the oldest ruin in the southwest and that it was deserted long before 1540, when Coronado made his expedition from the City of Mexico in search of the fabulous cities of Cibola.

El Moro, or Inscription Rock, is another important landmark, fifty-five miles east of the Zuni pueblo, and fifty miles south of the

Sante Fe road, near Wingate station. It is a quadrangular mass of white sandstone, nearly a mile in length and more than two hundred feet in height. Upon its weather-beaten surface are numerous inscriptions in Spanish, some of them deeply and beautifully engraved, and dated as far back as 1506. These inscriptions contain brief records of the visits of explorers and Spanish soldiers on the march of conquest, or early Franciscan friars penetrating the wilderness to convert the heathen. A special agent of the Land Office says that the Inscription Rock "is one of nature's most unique obelisks, wrapt in the profound silence of the desert. It is hard to realize that 500 years ago these same walls echoed the clank of steel harness and coats of mail and that with the implements of Spanish conquest the pathfinders of the new world were carving historic records upon the eternal rocks."

Chaco Canyon is another collection of cliff dwellings of great interest. Muir Woods is a wonderful natural forest in California. The Tuma Cacori national monument is the ruins of a church and monastery built by the Jesuit missionaries during the time of Spanish domination, two miles south of Tubar station near the Southern Pacific Railway in Arizona. The walls are of burnt brick twelve feet thick and only partially preserved. Portions of mural paintings still remain on the walls of the chancel.

The natural bridges in eastern Utah and north of the Navajo Indian Reservation are not accessible to the public because there are no roads to reach them, but that country is developing quite rapidly and means of transportation will ultimately be provided. The bridges are more lofty and have greater spans than any other natural bridges known to exist. Besides them the Natural Bridge of Virginia, which is associated in every child's history with an incident in the youth of George Washington, is a mere miniature. The Utah natural bridges were created by the erosion of streams which worked their way through them years ago. They have been seen and described by members of the Geological Survey, agents of the Land Office and other scientists, who estimate them as among the greatest wonders of the world.

The Lewis and Clark Cavern is a limestone cave of enormous dimensions, containing a number of large vaulted chambers. It is situated one mile from Limespur station on the Northern Pacific Railroad in Montana. It has two entrances which are about one

hundred yards apart in the walls of a deep canyon of the Jefferson river about five hundred feet below the rim and overlooks for a distance of fifty miles the trail of Lewis and Clark on their expedition to Oregon. The vaults of the cavern have never been fully explored, but those that are known are magnificently decorated with stalactites and stalagmites of great variety in size, form and color, similar to those of the Luray Caves of Virginia.

The area covered by the park system of the District of Columbia covers 773 acres, divided into 317 separate reservations, varying in size from 250 square feet to 301 acres. Of this area 117 plots of 361 acres are highly improved; 125 of 324 acres are partially improved, and eighty-seven of about eighty-eight acres remain unimproved. What is known as Potomac Park, west of the railroad embankment, contains a little more than three hundred acres exclusive of water surface.

In treating of this subject it is impossible to overlook the recent gift of Mrs. E. H. Harriman to the State of New York, of a tract of ten thousand acres of land and one million dollars cash for its improvement; and the accompanying gift of \$1,625,000 cash from seventeen patriotic men and women of New York City to be used in purchasing adjoining land. The intention is to make a park sixty miles long, varying from 1,200 feet to twelve miles wide, upon the rim of the Palisades and along the west bank of the Hudson River from the boundary line of New Jersey to the city of Newburg, above West Point. It is understood also that the family of the late Abram S. Hewitt intend to make a similar gift of eight or ten thousand acres south of the boundary to the State of New Jersey, provided the legislature of that state makes an appropriation for its care and improvement. When this scheme is completed it will be in several respects the most notable playground in the world, embracing a total area of 45,000 acres along the bank of a great thoroughfare and immediately accessible to three or four million people.

The United States is beginning to take care of its property. Our people are beginning to realize the value of their possessions, and are providing for their care and protection. If the present administration's policy had been applied to the national domain fifty years ago it would have made an enormous difference in our national wealth, but it is more important to look after future conservation than to waste tears over what we have lost.

NATIONAL FORESTS AS RECREATION GROUNDS

BY TREADWELL CLEVELAND, JR.,
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In extent, in variety of attractions, and in availability to the people of the country, the national forests form as a whole by far the greatest national recreation grounds in the world. Some of them, especially those near large centers of population, draw tens of thousands every season. Altogether, some 400,000 persons visit the forests annually for recreation. Most of these come from nearby cities and towns, but many come from other states and even from other countries. Moreover, the use of the forests for recreation has only fairly begun. It is increasing very rapidly—at least ten per cent a year on the average, and in some cases one hundred per cent a year.

The national forests are maintained to conserve the vast natural resources of wood and water. These resources are located on the slopes, crests, and peaks of the Rockies and the Coast Ranges, which are the most picturesque and healthful regions in the United States. Thus, by geographic necessity, they include the highest peaks, the finest glaciers, the most interesting geological formations, and much of the best virgin forests in the United States. They are, as a rule, supplied with pure water in great abundance. They contain much of the best hunting and fishing country. Within them are many of the most striking and important historic and prehistoric landmarks, as well as natural wonders which do not suffer by comparison with those of the national parks. An endless variety of landscape and every natural charm are included in their boundaries.

Recreation in the national forests usually takes the form of summer outings devoted simply to camping out. Individuals and small parties, or clubs, come in by stage or wagon—in some cases, by automobile—bringing with them provisions for a longer or a shorter visit, make camp, and shift for themselves with true western independence and skill. Doing without many conveniences is not regarded as privation. In comparison with this western way of enjoying nature, the usual eastern summer vacations spent at boarding

houses and hotels, or in camps which are camps in little more than name, appear highly artificial. In the national forests enjoyment of recreation is largely based on the absence of conditions which less sincere and capable lovers of outdoor life find quite as indispensable in the woods as in the towns. This fact explains much of the very wide use of national forests for recreation, in regions which are largely pure wilderness.

Summer cottages and hotels within the forests accommodate a large number of seekers after recreation. Many of the cottages are owned by city people who spend the summers in them. Others are rented. Railways which are interested in developing their summer business are doing much to attract visitors by providing and encouraging hotels and cottages in the forests. To mention but a single case in point, the Great Northern Railroad is developing the attractions of the Lake McDonald region, in the Blackfeet Forest. It has established a hotel on the Flathead River as headquarters for visitors, and has begun the erection of a series of Swiss chalets and cabins from point to point.

Besides just "camping out," the visitors do a great deal of fishing in a very energetic sort of way. In some forests they spend most of the season in fishing on almost a professional scale. Mountain climbing, boating, and riding are favorite pursuits. In the autumn, in the forests where game is plentiful, hunting is the chief sport. A detailed account of the attractions for recreation in the national forests is, of course, out of the question in this paper. Some slight idea of their variety may, however, be indicated briefly.

Scenery.—Almost every type of landscape may be found in the forests. For ruggedness and grandeur the forests of Washington and Oregon are probably unsurpassed. From the top of Goat Mountain in the Rainier National Forest, nothing can be seen but snow-capped peaks and crests in all directions; the landscape is Alpine in character. The view from Cone Peak in the Oregon National Forest, though somewhat softened by stretches of forest and by lakes, is of the same sort. The Olympic Forest lies in a region which has been called the "Alps of the United States." Chelan Forest includes three-quarters of the famous Lake Chelan, which is said to rival in impressiveness any lake in the Old World. These northwestern forests, besides the high peaks and crests, include some of the most notable glaciers in the country.

Those who know assert that the Rockies have no finer scenery to offer than is to be found in the region of the Blackfeet Forest in Montana, in the so-called Lake McDonald country. This region is visited by thousands of persons from all parts of the United States and foreign countries. The principal attractions of this forest are the Blackfoot, Kintla, Sperry, and other glaciers, which number about sixty in all, the superb mountains, and Lake McDonald. It is proposed to establish the Glacier National Park here. No scenery in the United States is at once more magnificent and more charming.

Yellowstone National Park is surrounded by national forests, one of which is the Shoshone Forest, through which runs the so-called East Road to the Yellowstone. At least 3,000 persons visit the Shoshone Forest every summer for recreation. Other forests much visited in this region are the Absaroka, Bonneville (Fremont Peak, over 14,000 feet), Targhee, and Teton. The two forests last named are adjacent to the Jackson Hole country, the most famous big game region in the United States, while the Teton Range has a skyline which is said to be unrivaled anywhere.

The mountain scenery of Colorado is too familiar to require extended notice. Pike's Peak is in the Pike Forest, and since the peak has been made accessible by several railways this forest has become more visited than any other. It is estimated that 100,000 persons seek recreation in the Pike Forest every year.

Among the Utah forests should be mentioned especially the Wasatch, the Uinta, and the Fishlake, which furnish fine examples of Rocky Mountain scenery.

Idaho offers in the Sawtooth, the Boise, the Pend Oreille, the Kaniksu, the Cœur d'Alene, and other forests some of the most attractive and the most popular recreation grounds in the whole number.

Toward the south, the configuration of the country is markedly different. What geologists call "erratic erosion" has resulted in the odd butte formations which are so characteristic of the landscape in the forests in Arizona and New Mexico. The Kaibab and Cocoino forests in Arizona include the Grand Canyon of the Colorado River, which is superior to anything of the kind elsewhere. The Sitgreaves and Apache forests, also in Arizona, cover the rise of the plateau which ends on the south in the so-called Mogollon Rim, where the land drops suddenly. From this rim the outlook over

southern Arizona is exceedingly wide. These forests, which are already much visited, appear destined to become one of the chief recreation grounds for people of the Southwest.

Especially popular recreation grounds are the California forests. In the main, these are accessible, while their delightful climate during a great part of the year gives them a special advantage. Some of the most notable scenery found in any of the forests is in this state. From the summit of San Jacinto Mountain, in the Cleveland Forest, may be had one of the most varied views imaginable. On the north is an unobstructed view across mountain and desert into Nevada; eastward, there is a clear sweep over the Salton Sea into Arizona; to the south, beyond a succession of lesser peaks, ridges, and valleys, Mexico may be seen; and to the west are intensively cultivated groves of fruit and fields of grain, and then the ocean, with the islands of Clemente, Catalina, and Coronado from eighty to one hundred miles distant on the horizon. Notable peaks in California forests are Mt. Whitney, in the Sequoia Forest, and Shasta and Lassen peaks in forests of the same names. Of all the volcanic mountains in the United States, Lassen Peak has been active most recently. Tahoe Forest, which draws some twenty thousand persons every year, includes Lake Tahoe, famous among the most picturesque lakes in the world. The bigtrees of the Stanislaus and Sequoia forests are of never-ending interest, while the Inyo Forest, with its beautiful lakes and meadows occurring at elevations of from eight to ten thousand feet, is typical of the High Sierra landscape. The Sequoia Forest includes the famous King's River Canyon, superior to that in the Yosemite National Park. Angeles Forest is visited by thousands.

The Superior Forest, in Minnesota, is in a class by itself. The whole region in which it lies has been made a state game preserve. It is a hilly region, strewn with countless lakes which are connected in long chains. Canoes may cruise these waters for as much as forty miles without a single carry. One is distinctly reminded of the Adirondacks, of New York, with which the Superior Forest region compares very favorably. The opportunity offered in this forest for the study of wild life, in which the country abounds, is rivaled only by the Sawtooth Forest, in Idaho, the Jackson Hole region, and the Minnesota Forest, in all of which game is preserved by the state.

National Monuments and Parks.—Natural wonders and landmarks of historic and prehistoric interest are numerous in the national forests. A number of these have been set apart as national monuments. Altogether, there are seven national monuments within the forests: The Cinder Cone, in the Lassen Forest, California; the Gila Cliff Dwellings, in the Gila Forest, New Mexico; the Grand Canyon, in the Kaibab and Coconino forests, Arizona; the Jewel Cave, in the Black Hills Forest, South Dakota; the Lassen Peak, in the Lassen Forest, California; the Pinnacles, in the Monterey Forest, California; and the Tonto, in the Tonto Forest, Arizona. These comprise a total area of 816,960 acres.

Of the national parks, the Yellowstone, the Sequoia, the Rainier, the Crater Lake, and the Yosemite lie within national forests, which frequently rival them closely, or even excel them, in scenic interest.

Medicinal Springs.—Medicinal and hot springs abound in many of the forests. They are still largely undeveloped, but already are widely used.

Encouragement of Recreation.—The use of the forests for recreation is indirectly encouraged by furthering their economic use. Permanent improvements, which are made as fast as the available funds will permit, are opening up the forests to every sort of legitimate use, and these improvements greatly add to the value of the forests for recreation. Roads, trails, and bridges, built for protection and the transaction of forest business, give visitors to the forest more ready access to all their parts. But a good deal is done by the Forest Service to encourage recreation directly, and this side of the subject must be briefly touched upon.

In general, forest officers spare no pains to serve visitors in the forests. They direct them to the best camping sites and to points of interest, do what they can to make them comfortable, and explain to them the forest regulations. More specifically, where occasion warrants, care is taken to prevent unfair use of camp and summer cottage sites. Thus, in the Minnesota Forest, for example, the shores of Cass Lake have been surveyed in blocks of camp sites, between which general access is had to the water. These sites are allotted to those who desire to establish camps, while the unallotted parts of the shore are used by those visiting the lake temporarily. By this arrangement, a desirable camp site may be secured from year to year for the nominal charge made for the permit, while monopoly

of the shore is prevented. The same general scheme is followed in many other forests.

To prevent the fouling of camp sites, grazing animals are kept at a proper distance. In this way campers who have horses are secured pasturage for them, since horses will not graze after sheep unless accustomed to run with them.

In some cases trails are made and bridges constructed expressly to open up places in the forests which are particularly well adapted for camps.

Assistance of this sort is keenly appreciated, and tends greatly to foster good feeling between the Service and the public.

Object Lessons in Forestry.—Visitors to the forests display keen interest in the objects and methods of forest administration. They have an opportunity to see the problems which have to be solved and the means employed for their solution. In this way the value of the work is brought home to them; they get an insight into it which only observation under skilled guidance can give. As a result, the general attitude of visitors is one of interested approval. The forest nurseries, in which seedlings are raised for reforestation, attract many, and where logging operations are in progress these are inspected and discussed. So marked is the interest shown in the practice of forestry that means will be taken, as far as practicable, to handle certain small areas in such a way as to furnish object lessons for purely educational purposes—what the forester would call demonstration plots. On Star Island, in Cass Lake, Minn., for instance, it is planned to handle the forest so as to show various kinds of silvicultural practice, such as nursery work, planting, and thinning. On the whole, the educational impression made upon those who take recreation in the forests must be regarded as considerable and important.

Future Use of the Forests for Recreation.—The use of national forests for recreation is certain to increase very greatly in the future. As the country becomes more crowded, and the wilderness retreats before the frontier of settlement, the national forests will tend to become almost the only available recreation grounds on a scale commensurate with the needs of the people. It is of the utmost importance, therefore, to consider the future of the forests.

Fortunately, the objects for which the national forests were created and are maintained, will guarantee the permanence of their

resources and will bring about their fullest development for every use. The national forests safeguard the integrity of the resources and place their use on a permanent basis. For this reason the recreation value of the national forests can never be destroyed. On the contrary, it must increase. The development of the various resources requires the extension and maintenance of permanent improvements in the form of roads, trails, bridges, and telephone lines, for the better protection of the forests and for the readier transaction of forest business. These improvements, in turn, benefit all users of the forests, including those who visit them for recreation. As the forests are opened up progressively by more intensive economic use, they will become more attractive, more convenient, and more accessible.

So great is the value of national forest area for recreation, and so certain is this value to increase with the growth of the country and the shrinkage of the wilderness, that even if the forest resources of wood and water were not to be required by the civilization of the future, many of the forests ought certainly to be preserved, in the interest of national health and well-being, for recreation use alone.

FORESTRY POLICY OF TYPICAL STATES—NEW YORK

BY HON. AUSTIN CARY,
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The State of New York has an area of 50,203 square miles, characterized by a great variety of topography and soil. A commanding feature is the Adirondack Plateau, occupying a large section in the northeastern part of the state; mountainous on the east side, gently sloping on the west; the source of many streams tributary to the Hudson and St. Lawrence rivers, which furnish extensive water power along their courses.

The Catskill region and the Highlands of the Hudson occupy a section in the southeastern portion of the state, a country of rough and broken nature, but interspersed with many rich and fertile valleys. The waters of this section are generally tributary to the Hudson and Delaware rivers.

Between these areas and to the west lies a great body of land forming the central and western parts of the state. It is a region of moderate elevation but varied topography, draining on the south into the Susquehanna and Ohio rivers; on the north into lakes Erie and Ontario and on the east into the Hudson. This area, as a rule, is adapted to cultivation and has a fertile soil.

The Adirondack Plateau is a region with Canadian flora. The softwood trees are mainly spruce, pine, hemlock and balsam; while beech, birch and maple are the predominating hardwoods. The season is short, the climate cold, the soil of low productive capacity. On account of these facts and because it is at the headwaters of so many important rivers, it is a region destined to be permanently devoted to the growing of forests.

The southeastern mountain region has a more general flora and includes birch, maple, oak, hickory and chestnut mainly, with a mixture of pine and hemlock. Considerable portions of the Highlands, like large areas of the Catskills, will be permanently devoted to the production of timber, but the portion nearer the Hudson River and the City of New York will be finally used for residence and park purposes.

New York was one of the first states to develop a lumber business, and for many years it stood first in the point of lumber protection. At the same time, agriculture has been busy in clearing the land of forests until at the present time the proportion of forest and farm land is perhaps at the normal point, thirty per cent of the area of the state, as near as known, remaining under forest cover. This, perhaps, with some changes in both directions, is likely to be permanently maintained.

The forest areas of central and western New York are now furnishing materials for quite extensive wood manufactures, but in time to come they can be expected to produce for local consumption only. They are in small tracts, farm woodlots chiefly, and their ownership must remain in private hands. Co-operating with these land owners will be the chief function of the state in that region. Owners can be taught through public agencies how to handle their wood-lots to better advantage. They are now furnished young trees by the state, at cost, to improve their forest stock. It is possible that in the distant future some kind of regular supervision and regulation might be provided; but, in the main, the protection and handling of these woodlands is the business of the owners themselves, and the products to be derived from them the owners will require for their own use.

The Adirondack region is the one in which the state's interest in forestry matters is of greatest importance. This section is valued for its scenic beauty and used extensively as a health and pleasure resort. It is the area from which, in the future, the great supplies of home-grown timber should come while the forest cover of the mountains in this region is of importance on account of the influence it has on the flow of power streams. All these factors make the interest of the New York public in the Adirondack region large, and that interest has already found expression in the following directions:

First, the State Forest Preserve, an area of one and one-half million acres, acquired largely by purchase since the year 1895. It is a settled policy of the state to continue these purchases.

Second, a state system of fire protection, improved this last year, under which the forest lands of the region, not only state but private, are being protected from fire.

Third, there is a tendency to regulate the operations of private

forest land owners in the Adirondacks. This tendency is yet too new and unformed to make it possible to state when or in what form it will come into play. The best solution of the Adirondack problem, best because simplest and most permanent, lies in state ownership. These woods will be safest for all possible uses; the interests of the whole people will be best secured; more timber will be produced, in the long run, as material for industry, if those areas are in state hands. Fortunately New York is rich enough to maintain a movement of this kind now, and in time the project should be financially profitable.

In the Catskills in a less degree the same principles hold. Considerable areas of true forest land lie in these mountains, and since 1899 the state has been acquiring land by purchase, the holdings in that region now amounting to 110,000 acres.

New York this past season has been maintaining a patrol system for the protection of the woodlands of the state and of private owners in the Adirondack and Catskill counties from fire. The force in the summer season consisted of forty-five superintendents and patrolmen on regular duty, with a large additional force on call, supplemented by a number of observation stations on mountains. During the 1909 fire season, which was rather dry, this system cost the state about \$40,000, and the damage suffered was about \$23,126.00. A fair consideration shows that good results were secured, all things considered, and it is the intention, by steady and persistent effort, to make this force as efficient as possible. Outside the so-called sixteen Forest Preserve Counties, the forest land is protected from fires by its owners or by supervisors of the town, who are responsible under the law.

New York state has, this year, been trying two experiments that are likely to be of interest to other commonwealths. A section of the forest fire law, affecting the Forest Preserve Counties, enacted in the Legislature of 1909, requires that all softwood trees cut in these counties shall have all the branches cut off from the stem, so that they may fall to the ground, rot quickly and thus reduce the fire danger consequent to lumbering. Fair success has been secured in administering this law and the measure of protection is believed to be worth the increased cost.

The other experiment relates to the Highlands of the Hudson where some forty thousand acres of mountainous forest land, in-

cluded within certain prescribed boundaries, though owned by private parties, have been put under the supervision of the Forest, Fish and Game Commission, to be managed "according to the methods," as the law says, "of modern forestry." A forester has been on the ground this past season, studying the different elements of the problem, organizing fire protection and determining what may be done under the law for the improvement of conditions. No results are yet at hand that are especially valuable, but the outcome of this attempt to regulate the use of private forest property will, of course, be interesting.

The forestry interests of the state are in the hands of the Forest, Fish and Game Commission, of which Hon. James S. Whipple is Commissioner. The force of the office at present consists of a superintendent and assistant superintendent of forests; four technically trained foresters; five inspectors employed largely in summer in looking after railroads; four superintendents of fires employed by the year who can, at certain seasons, be used in the protection of state property; and a considerable number of fire patrolmen and game protectors employed the entire year, who can be called on for the same sort of service.

The peculiar position in which the forest preserve is situated will be gathered from the following sentences embodied in section 7, article 7 of the state constitution.

The lands of the state, now owned or hereafter acquired, constituting the forest preserve as now fixed by law, shall be forever kept as wild forest lands. They shall not be leased, sold or exchanged, or be taken by any corporation, public or private, nor shall the timber thereon be sold, removed or destroyed.

This provision stands in the way of the reasonable use of the state forest and also bars out much legitimate business by private parties. It is expected that in the near future this provision will be modified in the interest of water storage, good roads, utilization of dead and down timber and the leasing of camp sites.

FORESTRY POLICY OF TYPICAL STATES—PENNSYLVANIA

BY HON. JOSEPH T. ROTHROCK,
Member of State Forestry Reservation Commission, West Chester, Pa.

Before its settlement by white men Pennsylvania was practically covered by a dense forest growth. The few lakes and the river beds were almost the only portions which were unshaded from the direct rays of the sun. In this primeval forest the shade was dense enough to keep the soil constantly in a more or less moist condition, and the atmosphere during most of the year was at, or near, the point of saturation.

Two hundred and eighty-six years have completely changed the appearance of the state's surface, and so reduced the timber supply that Pennsylvania has already long ceased to produce enough for her own wants. That so great a change should have taken place in so short a period is surprising, though it is easily accounted for.

In order to encourage settlement of the country, land patents were granted by the state for the nominal sum of twenty-six and two-thirds cents an acre. It was not even necessary that the purchaser should be a settler. This condition of affairs continued until March 28, 1905, when an act was passed which authorized the State Forestry Commission to decide whether any tract to which the state still held title should be sold, or passed over to the Forestry Commission and become a part of the State Forest Reserve. From March 30, 1897, the commonwealth has been buying back its lands, usually with the timber removed, often at a larger price than it received for them whilst the timber was still upon them. The act of 1905 ended this folly. Timber so cheaply purchased was often sold at a slight advance in price. The consequence was that lumbering operations were unduly stimulated. Men were content to cut and sell at a price which left but a small margin of profit.

Anterior even to the development of the lumber industry came the removal of our forests to make room for agriculture and to pro-

vide homes for the farmers. The earliest settlements were naturally in the hard-wood regions of the eastern part of the state. There were extensive forests of various species of oak and hickory. Chestnut, yellow poplar, black walnut, elm, white ash, basswood, and other valuable trees were common and often attained large size. I remember when the timber was removed by fire from ground that was to be converted into a farm. There was no market for it. Farm land was needed, above all else, for the young couple starting in life. No one questioned the motive then. No one does now, except to say that it would have been a wiser thing to have cleared less ground, and to have farmed it better. The crop would probably have been as large. The richness of the soil, the ease with which it could be reached, absence of Indian wars in the early history of the colony, all hastened the early settlement of the eastern end of the state. Ship-building interests drew upon the splendid white oaks, and also upon the white pines from the mountains. Our timber was exported to the West Indies, and went also by way of the Ohio River to build homes in states to the west of us. Later there were three sawmills in the state that, combined, required annually the product of seven thousand acres of land, averaging thirty thousand feet, board measure, of lumber per acre; that is nearly eleven square miles.

The prevailing timber west of the Allegheny River was hard wood, as in the eastern part of Pennsylvania; but the cone-bearing trees, pine and hemlock, characterized the central mountain axes. Associated with these, however, especially in the northern counties, were beech, two kinds of birch, black cherry, and much valuable hard maple.

The lands cleared for lumber have, as a rule, been left in a deplorable condition—for the most part they have been practically abandoned by the owners and given over to forest fires. These are the lands which have been purchased by the commonwealth for forestry purposes; but before considering the economic relation of these impoverished lands, a word may be offered concerning some of the farm lands.

At a moderate estimate, it would be safe to say that there are in Pennsylvania to-day a million acres that are classed as farm lands, simply because agriculture is attempted upon them, but which barely produce the food required by a family and enough to spare for pur-

chase of raiment. These lands are becoming poorer each year, and must, sooner or later, go into the list of abandoned farms.

Remunerative agriculture upon them is hopeless under existing conditions, and well-nigh hopeless under any conditions that we may reasonably anticipate. Living upon them as farms leads to a low form of citizenship. As cleared lands they will inevitably become poorer. If restored to forest growth, the tendency would be for the soil to improve, and eventually we might expect that they would be covered with merchantable timber of good quality.

The class of grounds to which I now allude are the steep hill-sides where a sandy or shaly soil is found. It is fairly an open question whether it would not be better for the owner, and his family, to plant his ground out in young timber trees and earn his living by some other mode than farming such land. If an industrious man, he would almost certainly earn a more comfortable living.

This leads to the question, what can the state do towards assisting in the restoration of such ground to a productive condition? First, it could furnish the seedling trees. To this it is practically already committed. Second, it could alter its present system of taxation, so as to make it possible for the land owner to attempt the policy of reforestation, which can be plainly shown to be as much in the interest of the state as of the land owner.

So far as we now see, it will not be possible for the commonwealth to obtain by purchase all the land it should have to ensure its own prosperous perpetuity and to guard against the disastrous conditions which inevitably follow upon excessive deforestation.

In addition, it may be safely stated that there are six million acres of land in Pennsylvania of an absolutely non-agricultural character, upon which there has been no attempt at farming. Most of this land is held by individuals, or corporations. Some of it may be used for grazing, but the time is certainly far distant when farming will be attempted upon it. It is essential, under any circumstances, that all of this six million acres should at once be placed under forest cover. To allow it to remain in its present condition will be ruinous because wash of soil from its surface will induce a desert condition. There are already vast areas now in this state which have become so hopelessly barren that it will require the expenditure of enormous sums to restore the ground to a productive

condition. Yet these very areas once produced a dense growth of valuable white pine and hemlock.

The exhaustion of timber in our state has been caused more by excessive taxation than by any real demand for lumber. If forest owners could have seen any coming relief from taxation, they would have been glad to hold their resources for the future, and only enough would have been cut to meet actual needs, and for this a fair payment would have been made. Regulation of cutting by "a trust," even, would have been helpful.

There seems to be but one remedy for this condition of affairs. Sixteen years ago attention was called to it by the present writer in the statement, "So long as land remains in the condition known as timber land, the owner, or owners, thereof should pay no taxes upon it, except in so far as he, or they, derive an actual revenue from it." If the statement had been modified so as to read "should pay no taxes upon the *timber*, except in so far as he or they derive an actual revenue from it," there would have been a practical accord with the new-born thesis of the National Conservation Association, which demands "the separation, for purposes of taxation, of the timber from the land on which it grows, so that the forest crop shall be taxed only when it is harvested, while the land shall be taxed every year."

It may be stated, as an indication of the advanced relation of Pennsylvania to the forestry problem, that a bill was introduced at the last legislature to create out of lands owned by individuals or corporations auxiliary forest reserves, to be practically under the direction of the State Department of Forestry. The land of these reserves was to be assessed for taxation at a maximum of one dollar an acre. The timber was to remain untaxed until cut, when the owner or owners were to pay an income tax of seventy-five cents for each thousand feet of coniferous timber cut, and fifty cents for each thousand feet of other timber cut. The bill failed of passage, but its reception was such as to indicate passage of it, or of a similar bill, in the near future.

Of these lands now owned in Pennsylvania by individuals, or by corporations, it may be safely said that if they are to be made again productive and useful, the state must either purchase them outright, or the tax must be removed from the timber whilst it is maturing. There seems to be no other solution in sight.

As a state Pennsylvania has made a notable start in forestry, by the purchase of 916,375 acres of non-agricultural land, which is set apart as a perpetual forest reserve, and which cannot be sold, or in any way alienated from the purpose for which it was intended. For planting all suitable land within this area three nurseries have been established, in which there are now millions of forest tree seedlings growing, which will be planted as fast as ready for removing.

Pennsylvania has had for several years a State Forest Academy, located at Mont Alto, in which young men are educated, at state expense, for the public forestry service. Admission to this school can be gained only after a rigid competitive examination. On the average, there are about sixty applicants each year, and from this number the ten who have passed the best mental and physical examination are accepted, after they have given satisfactory bond in the sum of five hundred dollars, to remunerate the state for money expended upon them, if they are dismissed for misconduct, failure to pass examinations, or for failure to promptly obey orders.

In addition to this forest academy, there is now a large class engaged in the study of forestry at the State College, where a highly satisfactory curriculum has been established. On the whole, Pennsylvania has made a creditable record in forestry. It is a matter of pride that her example has served as a stimulus to some other states.

All that has been done here, however, has led to a keener appreciation of how much remains undone. For example, for the state to plant and properly protect less than twenty million forest tree seedlings each year is simply to trifle with a great, pressing problem. If we were to plant a thousand such seedlings to the acre, the number above given would cover but little more than five and one-half miles square, out of an area probably fifty times as great, within this state, and on which there exists a no less urgent need of immediate forest protection. The ground is hilly on a large part of the land owned by the state, and the soil is generally of the loose sort which washes away most rapidly when deprived of its forest cover. It would not be difficult to point out areas in Pennsylvania which are capable of supporting from five to six hundred families, and which have been abandoned after lumbering. These areas have been swept by fire so often that no useful growth remains on them to protect the surface against the inevitable wash, which is rapidly transforming them into

actual deserts. Eventually the reclamation of such areas will become a public necessity, but the cost then, if stated now, would stagger belief. The only wise, economical thing to do is for the state to purchase such lands and to place them under care at once. It is an enormous problem, but it must be done sooner or later, in order that our increasing population may have occupation, food, and homes. The longer it is delayed, the more it will cost. Wherever our political system rises to the dignity of statesmanship, these facts will be recognized. It is for our State Forest Reservation Commission to place the problem fully and urgently before our general assembly, and put the responsibility of providing the means unequivocally upon that body. The duty of the commission is to buy land, and the duty of the state is to provide for its care. It is high time that the demands of all less fundamental interests upon the state treasury were relegated to the rear until this preservation of the soil of the commonwealth is attended to, for out of it, and of it alone, our prosperity must come.

From another point of view forestry merits consideration. I presume no one will dispute the proposition that a nation cannot be stronger than the aggregate of its citizens. It seems equally indisputable that, of our people, other things being equal, those who live most "in the open" are the most free from debilitating disease and are least dependent upon the public for charitable support. When we consider that a month or two of open air life, allowed to those who are confined in badly ventilated apartments (whether factory or office) often saves a hopeless breakdown and a prolonged or final absence from productive occupation, with probably the need of support in a charitable institution, the conclusion seems inevitable that it is cheaper, wiser and more humane to prevent than to cure disease. Fifty years of observation confirms me in this belief.

This leads to the inquiry whether it is not worth the attention of our legislators to consider ways and means of leading our ailing citizens into camp life, under proper restrictions, on the State Forest Reserves, in the hope that it would diminish the now wise and necessary expenditure for almshouses and sanatoria. The idea is not wholly new, as it was worked out to a triumphant success at Mont Alto before the camp developed, under the wise direction of Dr. Dixon, into a great sanatorium for the treatment of tuberculosis. It may as well be added that a bill looking toward such a plan was

introduced at the last legislature, assigned to the committee on appropriations, and perished there before being allowed a chance on the floor of the house. It needs no prophetic eye to recognize that the trend of events will lead to the adoption of some such plan in a not distant future.

The following figures received by the courtesy of the State Department of Forestry seem important and should accompany the foregoing discussion.

FIRE LOSSES IN 1908.

Number of acres burned over	398,855
Number of feet (board measure) of logs burned	10,216,032
Number of feet (board measure) of sawed lumber burned	931,350
Number of railroad ties burned	24,081
Number of mine props burned	223,813
Number of cords of pulp wood burned	15,531
Number of cords of cord wood burned	2,812
Number of cords of bark burned	408
Number of panels of fence burned	125,474
Number of buildings burned	59
Value of buildings burned	\$18,682.00
Cost of individuals to extinguish fires	\$108,158.37
Number of men employed by individuals	10,275
Number of days employed	4,578
Total loss by reason of forest fires	\$688,980.02
Number of fires by counties	1,961

NUMBER FEET MERCHANTABLE TIMBER DESTROYED BY FIRE DURING 1908.

Cut logs (B. M.)	10,216,032
Sawed lumber (B. M.)	931,350
Railroad ties (B. M.)	1,050,564
Mine props (B. M.)	4,028,634
	<hr/>
	16,235,580
Pulp wood (cords)	15,531
Cord wood (cords)	2,812
Bark (cords)	408
	<hr/>
	18,751

Average loss per acre, \$1.7266.

NUMBER AND CAUSES OF FOREST FIRES DURING 1908.

Unknown causes	835
Railroads	588
Burning brush	145
Incendiary	132
Hunters	127
Bee hunters	30
Sawmills	20
Boys and children	13
Dinkey engines	12
Fishermen	8
Berry pickers	7
Traction engines	4
Tramps	2
Oil well	1
Toy balloon	1
Carelessness	36
<hr/> Total	<hr/> 1,961

TIMBER CUT IN 1908.

Number of acres cut over	105,736
Number of acres cut over to be used for farming purposes	5,225
Number of feet (board measure) white pine cut	51,678,063
Number of feet (board measure) hemlock cut	415,829,709
Number of feet (board measure) other woods cut	320,270,726
Number of cords of bark peeled	250,869
Number of cords used as pulp wood	169,724
Number of cords used in the manufacture of alcohol or acid	135,008
Total number of cords of cord wood cut	385,139
Number of feet (board measure) cut for mine props	51,075,135
Number of feet (board measure) cut for railroad ties	13,515,543
Number of feet (board measure) cut for telegraph poles	485,450

STATE FORESTS IN MICHIGAN

BY FILIBERT ROTH,

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Michigan is a part of the Great Lakes region, which extends from the State of New York, west and northwest, far beyond the confines of the United States. This region is a broad expanse of level country without high mountains, but dotted by lakes and swamps and traversed in all directions by numerous streams.

Michigan is made up of two peninsulas, the "upper and lower," formed by Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron and Erie, and shares the general character and topography of the Great Lakes region. Lakes Michigan and Huron are about five hundred and seventy-five feet above the sea, Lake Superior about six hundred feet, and the lands slope from these lakes to an elevation of four hundred to six hundred feet above the lakes themselves. In the upper peninsula the "Porcupine" and "Huron" mountains, and other groups and chains of picturesque hills, skirt the "Father of Lakes," and rise, in a few points, to a maximum altitude of nearly two thousand feet above sea level.

The climate of Michigan varies from a mild temperate one in which peaches and the grapevine thrive to a cold frosty one, where the snowy winters are long and frost appears in nearly every month of the year. Generally Michigan lies between the yearly isotherm of 40° and that of 50° F.; the summer is warm, but rarely hot, and the winters generally cold. From the standpoint of tree growth, Michigan lies in a climatic transition zone, in which such trees as the tulip poplar, chestnut, sycamore, sassafras, walnut, hickory and others find their northern limits, while the northern pines, spruce, cedar, and tamarack have their southern limit within the state.

An average rainfall of about thirty to thirty-five inches, quite well distributed throughout the year, enables the forest trees to occupy all parts of the state.

Nearly all of the land area of Michigan is overlain with a mass of glacial drift, so that the soil is generally very deep, and variable

in composition and character. Over large areas this soil is a deep, coarse sand, unfit for agriculture and covered everywhere with the typical "pinery" vegetation.

In keeping with the surface geology, the generally level character of the country and the irregular deposits of drift, the drainage is imperfect, and in nearly all parts of the state there occur large and small lakes and swamps, the latter generally old ponds or lakes filled, or in process of filling.

Michigan was a forest, and the white pine its greatest tree. Not Maine, but Michigan should have been called the "White Pine State." There were practically no real prairies in Michigan. The few openings, such as "Prairie Ronde," were mere holes burned into the great forest and maintained by fire. A much larger area of open lands existed in form of grass marshes and open bogs.

The forest, in its original form, may well be divided into a southern "hardwoods" forest, without pine, and a northern forest, in which the pine formed a conspicuous part of the composition. This latter again divides itself, naturally, into the northern hardwoods, largely of maple and beech, with hemlock and some pine, and stocked on the loam and clay lands, and into the "pinery" proper, or pure forest of pine, limited to the poorer sandy lands.

Throughout these three great divisions, or types, of forest, there existed the swamp woods, occupying the poorly drained depressions, and varying from a few acres to several square miles in extent.

The southern hardwood forest of Michigan was part of the great hardwoods region of the Ohio Valley; it occupied approximately what is now the three southern tiers of counties, was practically without pine and spruce, but varied in its composition considerably according to soil and drainage. The well-drained, rolling lands were covered with oakwoods, made up of oak (red, white, black and scarlet oak), with variable mixture of hickory, walnut, butternut, elm, beech, ash, basswood, maple, cherry, blue beech, hornbeam and others.

In places, especially on gravelly slopes, old stands of these oakwoods assumed the appearance of parkwoods and became well-known as "oak openings."

The valleys and flats, notably the old "lakebeds" were largely maple and beech woods with a heavy mixture of elm and ash, and

but little of oak, hickory or the walnut. Over large areas these flats were poorly drained and swamp-like, and were often known locally as "elm and ash swamps," these two kinds of trees usually predominating on such ground.

The northern hardwoods were maple and beech woods with more or less of conifers, hemlock, white pine and balsam; and in some localities, notably the upper peninsula, with some spruce and white cedar or arbor vitæ. These northern hardwoods varied considerably with soil and drainage, in some tracts the elm and basswood appeared as predominant timber, but generally they were practically without oak, hickory or walnut.

The "pinery" proper, *i. e.*, the forests of pine on the sandy lands were practically without any hardwoods of merchantable size. Generally there appeared a sprinkling of poplar (aspens), white birch, scrubby maple and oak. On the flats and moister situations and on the better sands this pine forest was largely of white pine with some Norway or red pine; on poorer sands it was largely or all Norway pine and on the poorest sands it was stocked with jack pine. Older stands of these pines, especially the Norway pine, were almost without undergrowth or brush, so that in some of these a team could be driven for miles without a road. Of the jack pine lands, large tracts were kept clear by fire and thus became the "jack pine plains," evidently an effort on the part of the Indian to provide an open, prairie-like summer-camp, free from mosquitoes and flies and supplying, incidentally, a large amount of delicious fruit in the crops of the huckleberry.

The swamp woods were composed chiefly of tamarack and cedar in variable proportions. Usually they contained a sprinkling of spruce which predominated on the bogs, and along the edges a mixture of pine, balsam, aspen, ash and maple. This swamp timber was always small compared to the big pine and hardwoods of the dry lands.

These were the great forests of Michigan of a century ago, and beautiful forests they were. Large oak, often 300 years old and more, furnished shelter and food for game. Hickory, walnut, and thicket of hazel supplied the natives with nuts; plum, cherry, wild grape, raspberry, blackberry and huckleberry furnished fruit in abundance. Deer, bear, wolf, fox, beaver, wildcat, muskrat, squirrel and rabbit were all abundant and relatively easy to secure.

Everywhere the waters teemed with fish and from spring until fall they were alive with water fowl of many kinds, while in the woods the wild turkey and grouse remained throughout the year, and the passenger pigeon came in flocks so large and so tame that they could be secured by the thousand. This was the beautiful home of the Chippewa, who depended on the forest and water for shelter and food, broke trails through the woods and used the streams and lakes as his highways. He used the forest, but did not destroy it, and when the white man came he found an unbroken forest and not a region of burned-over waste lands.

To-day the southern part of the state is cleared and settled and the forest is limited to the woodlot of the farm. In the northern half the conditions are different. Axe and fire have destroyed practically every acre of the pine forest proper, and these sandy pinery lands to-day are cut- and burned-over wastelands. The hardwoods have suffered, but have suffered less, so that they still support a considerable lumber industry. On the whole it is rather surprising to find such large areas of woods and wild lands in so old a state and so near some of the centers of population. Of the north half of Michigan only about fifteen per cent is settled and over ninety per cent is unimproved wild land. A day's ride on the train brings the resident of Chicago into the heart of the upper peninsula, an area of over ten million acres, in which fully ninety-five per cent of all lands are woods and wilderness. The tourist finds here all that he can wish for. A variety of conditions, bold, rocky, wood-clad hills, fine hardwood forest on gentle slopes, and broad stretches of interesting tamarack and cedar swamps, and everywhere lakes and ponds as pleasant surprises, and streams of cold, clear water rushing to the great inland seas. Little wonder, therefore, that the state forests in Michigan did not originate, as did the Adirondack Park of New York, in the desire of the people for a place of rest and recreation. In Michigan the state forest came out of an attempt to solve a political land problem and at the same time satisfy a public clamor for a beginning in forestry.

When the lumberman of Michigan had cut the pine from a section of land and the fire, which invariably followed every operation of this kind, had destroyed what the axe had left, the owner no longer cared to pay the usually exorbitant taxes, and simply left the land to revert for non-payment of taxes. After a few

years these lands became tax lands and were regarded as property of the state. During this transition and often for ten and twenty years after, the state spent its good money in advertising these lands and bookkeeping and thus the lands became a serious burden, which some years amounted to over one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. Even after the state succeeded in getting rid of the lands, they were rarely settled, but generally bought merely to skin off some remnants of timber which had escaped the fires. In an effort to end this useless and wasteful business and also to make a beginning in forestry, the friends of forestry urged the holding of these lands as state forest. In 1903 about thirty-five thousand acres in Roscommon and Crawford counties were set aside and placed in the care of the State Forest Commission. Practically all of these lands had come into the possession of the state for taxes. They were poor, sandy, pinery lands, with a considerable proportion of swamp. Aside from the swamp-woods there is no real forest, and considerable areas were jack pine and scrub oak plains, which were without merchantable timber when the forest of the district was exploited. The work done upon these lands consisted in protecting them against fire and trespass, in their survey and classification, and in an estimate and description of the woods. In addition, a nursery was established and several large plantations set out. The plant material or trees raised in the nursery and set out on the waste lands are largely pine and spruce. In keeping with the public character of the enterprise, a number of experiments have been undertaken to find the most effective and satisfactory ways of restocking lands of this kind. In addition, large quantities of the plant material were sent out to landowners all over the state, with a view of encouraging the setting out of trees and woods.

So far the only use that has been made of these state forest lands for recreation consists in fishing and hunting. There is still considerable game, some deer and bear, few grouse, and some ducks and geese during migration. Hunting is permitted without restriction beyond that of the general game laws of the state. While thus the state forests of Michigan hardly belong to the enterprises here considered, this is only partly true and will probably not be true in the near future. For some months past the new "Public Domain Commission," which has entire charge of all state lands and forests, has been setting aside additional tracts, so that now there are over

one hundred thousand acres of state forest. It has also under consideration a plan to make some of these forests game refuges. Should such a plan succeed, it would add much to attract the visitors who, in their vacations, love to combine rest and the enjoyment of nature.

PARK SYSTEM OF ESSEX COUNTY, NEW JERSEY

BY FREDERICK W. KELSEY,
Orange, New Jersey.

The Essex County park system was the first undertaking wholly under county initiative and control. The plan involved at the outset a dual method of administration: a special commission for selecting the parks, their development and future regulation, while the financing of the enterprise was left with the regularly constituted county authorities. In recent years we have become familiar with commissions for local parks, but I have not been able to learn that any similar county undertaking was in existence in 1894, at the time of the inauguration of this scheme.

The movement in favor of parks and recreation grounds was accentuated by the rapid growth of Newark and other contiguous cities and towns within the county. While this interest in parks and other improvements was quite generally diffused at the inception of the county park plans, it was largely confined to individuals. The realization of this ideal was also badly hampered from the fact so generally prevalent in this country, that the men most competent to deal with such questions were too deeply engrossed in their private affairs.

The city of Newark had made a commendable effort from 1867 to 1871 to secure a public park. The legislature, in April, 1867, authorized a commission of twenty-six members to select and locate grounds for that purpose. The subsequent location of but one park in the northern part of the city resulted in rival claims being urged for the southern section, which so complicated the situation through jealousies and the spirit of sectionalism as to prevent further action either by the legislature or by the city authorities.

In 1892 a report of the Newark Board of Trade, favoring the immediate acquisition of parks, was well received, but nothing further came of it. In January, 1894, the plan for a county park system was launched, and there was immediate and generous response from every city, town and borough in the county. The victory was easily won because the plan proposed was simple,

direct and practicable. It was readily understood, and was susceptible of immediate and effective execution.

The suggestion for this plan was brought out at a dinner in Orange, January 3, 1894. A meeting was soon after arranged at the Board of Trade rooms in Newark. The park committees from Orange and Newark were present and the plan was unanimously approved. The late A. Q. Keasbey and the writer were then appointed a sub-committee to prepare a bill for the legislature, embodying the features of the plan. This draft of the bill was promptly approved by the committees at a meeting held April 25, 1894, and the same day transmitted to Trenton for introduction into the senate. It was passed by both houses with hardly a dissenting vote, and on May 8th, within two weeks after its introduction, was approved by the governor.

The provisions of this law were very simple. The presiding county judge was authorized to appoint a commission of five persons for the term of two years to "consider the advisability of laying out ample open spaces for the use of the public . . . in such county," with "authority to make maps and plans of such spaces, and to collect such other information in relation thereto as the said board may deem expedient;" and to "make a report in writing of a comprehensive plan for laying out, acquiring and maintaining such open spaces." The commission was also authorized to employ assistants, and to be reimbursed for actual traveling expenses incurred "in the discharge of their duties." The total expenditures were limited in the act to ten thousand dollars. The payment was to be provided by the board of freeholders—in New Jersey the county governing board—in the county tax levy in the usual manner. The commission was appointed June 18th, two members from Newark, one from Orange, one from South Orange, and one from Belleville. The judge in making the appointments referred to the "great public interest in the subject, pro and con, and mainly favorable to it," and considered it his "duty to appoint men who are so favorable to this enterprise and so desirous that it should be executed that they will be judicious enough to make such recommendations as will be approved by the public, so that the work will be finally accomplished." Up to this time no political pressure or other scheming influences had been active.

It was my privilege to serve as an official and member of the

first commission. The work of the board went rapidly forward. Immediately after organization the commission got in touch with other park boards in this country and in Europe and the various governing boards of the county, inviting suggestions and "co-operation in according fair consideration to every portion of the district." Some of the suggestions were practical, others visionary, but all bore the imprint of good-will. Some of the real estate speculators "cast an anchor to windward," and the commission discovered that in the aggregate of the recommendations a large portion of the county was well adapted to park uses. This led to the decision soon afterward as to holding the meetings of the board in executive session while the location of the parks might be under consideration—a plan still in vogue, which gives the meetings of the commission a star chamber close-corporation atmosphere. Landscape architects were employed, and each was requested to indicate on a map the locations of such parks and connecting parkways as in his judgment would provide the best park system that could be devised. The compensation was a fixed fee, expenses allowed, and it was understood that the designer of the most acceptable plan would properly hold an advance position for future engagement should the plan or plans be later carried out. Thus excellent expert counsel was obtained at the reasonable cost of \$2,372.

In some of the more important features all of the recommendations of the landscape architects agreed, and they are now parts of the park system. The commissioners with these reports and maps before them personally visited every section of the county.

The work of the commission during the summer and autumn of 1894 was pushed rapidly forward. By December counsel was appointed to assist in preparing a charter for a succeeding permanent commission. On April 19, 1895, the commission met for the last time. Its work had been completed in ten months. Of the \$10,000 appropriated, but \$4,474 had been expended.

The proposal that led to the establishment of the first commission contained the recommendation "that the commission be non-partisan, its members selected for fitness, with the sole object of devising the very best scheme for a system of parks that is practicable for the entire district." This recommendation, perhaps, appealed more strongly to the electorate and to the people generally than any of the other features of the plan. Indeed, I look upon the

immediate success of the plan both in the county and in the legislature as due very largely to this, the third feature of the original proposal.

The act creating the second commission was approved March 5th, and became Chapter cxi of the New Jersey laws of 1895. The bill provided for a commission of five members to be appointed, as was the first commission, by the presiding county judge, carried with it an appropriation of \$2,500,000 of county funds, without reference to local assessments for park benefits, and a referendum clause, submitting the act to the county electorate to determine whether the law should become operative. The act passed both assembly and senate without a dissenting vote.

At the special election, April 9th, following, the majority in favor of the adoption of the law was 8,321. In Newark the vote was 11,853 for and 9,330 against the bill. In other communities the majority for it was much larger. It was then that political forces and special interests, always having a keen eye for the main chance, "got busy." Specious claims were adroitly and in the usual subrosa manner brought to the attention of the judge to show why the men who had previously been selected, as the public evidently understood for reasons of fitness, and whose record in the first commission had been everywhere approved, should not be reappointed. It was urged that other men more to the liking of certain interests should be selected. Sectional interests, which, as already indicated, had totally defeated one Newark park undertaking, were put forward to assist in accomplishing the desired result. The judge yielded to this pressure and but three of the commissioners were reappointed. Of the two new members, one was an active ambitious politician, then, as since, chairman of the State Republican Committee. The other new member was an old-time thorough partisan, rich and eminently respectable, who made no pretense of possessing any practical knowledge whatever of public parks. Neither of these appointees had had anything whatever to do with the formulative plans or the work of the first commission. Both were actively identified with large corporate interests centering in Newark.

The two new commissioners were, by the judge's request, installed as officers of the new commission. Moreover, it was insisted by the new officials, almost immediately after organization, that a political worker, whose inefficiency as an attorney in the

public sinecure positions that he had held for years had become notorious, must be appointed counsel to the commission at a munificent salary.

The injection of these new members into the commission and their selection as its officers, changed in a large measure its plans, and very naturally its scope and policy. The pledges made by the first commission to the public as to the limits of expenditure for the park system and as to the execution of the park plans agreed upon for the whole county, including the two necessary parkways for connecting the larger parks, were not recognized as binding upon the new members. They were there, as one of them expressed it, "to spend the \$2,500,000 as they pleased, without regard to what the former commission may have said or done." Instead of proceeding toward the development of the park system for the county as a whole, a piece-meal policy was adopted of locating here and there a park without reference to the connecting parkways. Some of the members, including myself, who had served on the first commission and had been reappointed, were most anxious that good faith should be kept with the public; but the changed policy was carried out and has since remained as the controlling method of procedure in the acquisition and development of the county parks.

Three important results have followed: (a) The parks have cost nearly six millions of dollars against an estimated cost of \$2,500,000, as announced by the first commission and pledged to the people at that time. (b) With all this expenditure, while we have fine parks and natural reservations, we have yet no connected park system. (c) The Public Service Corporation and other "considerations," financial and political, effectually turned over one of the vitally important connecting parkways to the perpetual use of the traction company. The other great parkway between the central Branch Brook Park in Newark and the Orange Mountain, while finally surrendered by the traction interests for a parkway, has never been adequately improved and has no connection under park control through to the mountain parks.

At the close of 1896, within fifteen months after the receipt of \$2,450,000 from the sale of county bonds, and when the park lands had been only partially acquired, the commission found that its financial limit had been practically reached. The legislature and

the electorate, however, voted more bonds, and the work went on. This process has now been several times repeated but with constantly decreasing majorities. The various issues of bonds for county park purposes now outstanding amount to \$5,800,000.

The contest between those contending for the public parkways and those favoring the Public Service Corporation, with its allied forces, was an aggressive one. For more than five years the battle raged. The courts, the various governing bodies, civic associations, and the newspapers were active in the campaign. Only the Park Commission appeared indifferent to the fate of its own plans. The traction forces were materially assisted by the Park Commission's own counsel. The final result was that the traction company secured a franchise for a part of the distance on Central Avenue, and the cars have since been running there as far as the Orange lines; while Park Avenue, the other intended parkway, was transferred to the "care, custody and control" of the Park Commission and the attempt to secure a franchise on that avenue abandoned. The cross section East Orange Parkway is now completed for a short distance, but as one terminus is on a narrow street and the other ends at the trolley tracks on Central Avenue, it is little used and has been chiefly beneficial to one of the commissioners appointed in 1895 who was a very large owner of the land through which the parkway was built.

There are now five principal parks in the Essex County System: the beautiful Branch Brook Park in Newark, of about three hundred acres, costing nearly \$3,000,000; Eagle Rock reservation along the crest of the Orange Mountain, of more than four hundred acres; the South Mountain reservation, of about twenty-five hundred acres; Weequahic Park and Lake, South Newark, of something like three hundred acres; Orange Park, of about fifty acres, and smaller local parks. The parks are well laid out and the improved ones are effectively treated with lawns and planting, and are kept in excellent condition. The low swamp lands, after suitable drainage, become most attractive as lawns and for border plantations.

When the park system was inaugurated in 1895, the county had a population of 300,000 and ratables of \$178,000,000, with a direct county indebtedness of only \$766,000. In some localities both population and ratables have since nearly or quite doubled,

and the parks are an added attraction, more and more appreciated as time goes on and the density of population increases.

Hudson County a few years ago followed the Essex County plan, and obtained from the legislature an amended charter for a county park commission. The law provides that the commission of four must consist of two members chosen from each of the leading political parties. This commission has received larger county appropriations, and is now acquiring and developing parks in Jersey City and other parts of Hudson County. The completion of the Hudson River transit tubes, and the rapid growth of land values indicate conclusively that the park movement both in Essex and Hudson counties began none too soon.

Whether an appointive or elective commission is preferable; where it is safest and best to lodge the appointing power under the former plan of park organization; and whether, by any known method of legislative or municipal creation, it is possible permanently to secure park officials selected wholly for fitness, are questions too large to be discussed here. Commissioners who work solely from motives of civic pride and public spirit sooner or later discover the same lurking influences directly inimical to the public weal that President Roosevelt had to contend with in Washington, and that Judge Lindsey faced in Denver.

The experience of Essex County should, however, not discourage those interested in securing public parks. The Palisade Park Commission, since its creation in 1900, has accomplished excellent results; it has inspired public confidence, and has secured magnificent bequests. What it has done and is doing augurs well for the future.

THE PARK SYSTEM OF HUDSON COUNTY, NEW JERSEY

BY WALTER G. MUIRHEID,

Secretary Hudson County Park Commission and Board of Trade of
Jersey City, N. J.

To deal with the problem of creating a system of parks in one of the areas of densest population on the American continent, necessitating the acquisition of land for a general park system at the highest average cost heretofore made necessary in any American community, has been the task allotted to the Hudson County Park Commission, in the smallest county in area and the largest in population in the State of New Jersey. The district covered by the Hudson County park system approaches in population the highest average per acre of territory of any county in the United States. How this commission solves its park problem, therefore, becomes a matter of much interest to other crowded communities. If Hudson County handles the problem successfully, it will help to solve difficulties of a similar character in other communities.

The members of the commission did not assume the duties of the office to which they were called without an understanding of the extensive plans upon which they were expected to operate, or of the peculiarly difficult nature of the task before them. They realized that while in one sense Hudson County is a municipal unit as a county, and is also divided into other municipal units by the several cities and towns which go to make up the county, yet, in another sense, it is only a part of the metropolitan unit of which the borough of Manhattan is the center.

There are nowhere else in America such peculiar conditions as rule in the relationship of Hudson County to New York City. An overwhelming majority of those who live within the county have an income of from \$500 to \$2,000 per year. The proportion of the very poor and the very rich in the county's population is small. The park problem, therefore, is a unique one, and must be met and solved with but little light from other cities. In the solution of the

problem it was deemed wise to approach it from the people's side, and not from the land side.

Hudson County has no open country in its suburbs in the usual acceptation of the term "country," and for that reason, as it increases in population, it cannot spread out like the ordinary city with an open country around it. On the contrary, as its population increases, its available open area will decrease, and the constant encroachment of the railroads on its territory will in time leave no space for the very important purpose of giving to a large and thickly settled community the benefit derived from parks and playgrounds.

The Hudson County Park Commission is composed of four members appointed by the Court of Common Pleas under authority of a special act of the legislature, and its funds are supplied by sales of county bonds to an amount the total of which is equal to one per cent. of the county ratables. Its object is to establish and maintain a system of county parks.

There were some who said that any commission that the court might appoint would be unable to complete the construction and maintenance of this system of county parks. They said that the political influence that would be brought to bear would be so heavy as to defeat the purposes of the commission. At the death of its first president, when it was necessary to appoint his successor, men to whom the position was offered declined to serve, fearing that the commission would be tied up by political entanglements and that they would not be free to continue the construction of a suitable park system for Hudson County in the way in which it should be conducted.

Since the organization of the commission it has been beset by many political obstacles, but it has met such difficulties and in every case overcome them. Every session of the New Jersey Legislature brings forth a number of bills the sole object of which is to hamper and annoy the commission in the prosecution of its work. Fortunately for the people of Hudson County, however, "strike bills" and bills representing private or special interests have not been permitted by the state's legislature to become laws, and thus interfere with the work of the commission. As a consequence, Hudson County is rapidly coming into possession of a modern system of public parks that has been commented upon favorably, and the work of the commission has been indorsed by almost every park com-

mission in the United States and many similar bodies of the largest cities of Europe.

It has been held by those competent to give an authoritative opinion upon the subject that the minimum area of park space for the population of any community should be at least one acre for every 200 persons. Assuming this to be a correct estimate, Hudson County should have at this time more than 2,503 acres of park space, and Jersey City, the largest municipality in the county, more than 1,268 acres, or more than thirty times its present city park area. It is an undisputed fact that available space cannot be purchased in this county for less than an average of \$3,300 per acre. This, then, in order to give an acre to every 200 persons, would require the expenditure for land alone of \$8,259,900, which, it is needless to say, the commission does not advocate.

A noted park authority says that any ratio between population and park area is a constantly varying one, for the population of a city or county is constantly increasing. A certain proportion of the ground occupied by a municipality is, of necessity, reserved for public use, a large percentage of which must, of course, be devoted to streets. A study of conditions in many cities has formed the basis of an estimate that 15 per cent. of the area of cities is used for public streets and 5 per cent. for parks. In other words, 20 per cent., or one-fifth of the total area, can be advantageously set aside for public use, and such setting aside increases and does not decrease the value of the other four-fifths which remain as private property. This ratio of 20 per cent., the authority states, should be increased in densely populated centers. It is usually larger than that. By this estimate Jersey City, with an area of 12,288 acres, according to the state geologist, should be entitled to at least 614 acres of public parks, and the other municipalities of the county in proportion. There should also be a fraction of one per cent. used for public buildings.

As a matter of fact, in a little over five years the commission has purchased or decided upon six county parks, the smallest of which contains 5.455 acres and the largest 207.823 acres, the total acreage of these six pleasure spots being 514 acres. The average price per acre of the land for these parks to date has been \$3,275.96, while some property, acquired by condemnation proceedings, has cost the county \$22,887.45 per acre.

West Side Park, the largest of these, located in Jersey City, with its entrance at the crest of the southern boundary of the Palisades and thence running west to the Hackensack River, is the only park where extensive improvements have yet been made, all of the upland portion, comprising about a hundred acres, having been turned over to the public as a finished park some time ago. This park, on account of its size and central location, occupies the same relation to the community as do Central Park to New York and Prospect Park to Brooklyn. It, therefore, seems highly desirable that it should be made as beautiful as possible. In their planning the architects had this as an important secondary motive. It has not been permitted to interfere in the least, however, with the idea of a thoroughly useful park, where rest and recreation should have first place. The plan contemplated no "Keep off the grass" signs, but provided, on the other hand, for a great abundance and a great variety of areas where almost every healthy outdoor recreation might be enjoyed. West Side Park is to-day one of the most popular recreation spots in the state.

It is on the meadow portion of this park that there will be constructed the largest playground in the world, where it is planned to provide such facilities for outdoor sports as have been found popular in the newer park systems throughout the country. Ample areas are arranged for baseball, tennis and general sports, and a field house with locker facilities will be located about midway of the field.

This playfield on what is now covered by the Hackensack meadows will comprise about sixty-nine acres, exclusive of another smaller tract. It will be about six times the size of the gigantic stadium at Athens, which is famous as the athletic field of the Greeks, and three times the size of the beautiful green lawn of Central Park, where thousands of Manhattan's children congregate daily. Nowhere in New York, which has scores of playgrounds greater in size than those of any other city in America, is there a field that can be rated in the same class, while it greatly exceeds in size any playground in Europe.

Of the athletic fields of New York City, the largest, which is now the largest in the world as well, is the forty-acre parade ground adjoining Prospect Park, Brooklyn, which has twenty baseball diamonds, eleven cricket fields, and space for lawn tennis and other

games. The West Side Park playfield will be half as large again as this one, surpassing anything of its kind and size in the world.

The athletic field at Pelham Bay Park contains about twenty acres, or less than one-third the area of the Jersey City playground, while Thomas Jefferson Park, in Manhattan, and Macomb's Dam Park, in the Bronx, which are pointed to with pride by New York City as the ideal of a city's interest in its young, are scarcely one-seventh the size of the Jersey City field.

Paris and Berlin have splendid parks, but no great space set aside for young men and boys to play. London's suburbs are dotted with large greens, or commons, where cricket is played on holidays, but even the largest, that at Blackheath, is less than one-third as large as will be the Jersey City playfield. Several times the size of any baseball field in the country, it will be in the summer months the meeting-place through the week of hundreds of boys and men; on Saturdays and holidays the hundreds will be thousands. At present the tract is a vast stretch of marsh meadows.

The old St. George cricket grounds in Hoboken, the most densely populated city in the United States, has been bought by the commission, and a portion of it already made into a public playground, while plans have been accepted for its improvement during the present year as one of the most complete modern playfields in the United States. The other sites thus far selected include 160 acres in the township of North Bergen, at the northerly extremity of the county, atop the Palisades, overlooking the majestic Hudson, 200 feet below; 48 acres in Harrison, in the westerly portion of the county, between the Passaic and Hackensack rivers, and two parks in Bayonne, in the southern part of the county, one of 84 acres and one of 5 acres.

Hudson County is at present possessed of no large public parks, with the exception of the sites already selected by the commission. Fifteen public squares, nine in Jersey City, two in Bayonne, three in Hoboken and one in West Hoboken, are the only other public pleasure spots in Hudson County to-day. They offer no rural effects whatever, and are merely city squares, with asphalt paths, grass and trees, yet they are thronged on warm evenings with men, women and children, affording additional evidence of the need of park lands in the county.

West Hudson County, comprising in land area more than one-

third of the entire county and extending from the Hackensack to the Passaic River, has no public park or playground. The density of population in Harrison, Kearny and East Newark, and the fact that its vacant lands are rapidly being built upon, caused the commission to give immediate attention to this section of the county.

The project of a county system of parks is comparatively new, and is being watched with great interest. While it is an excellent one, it has necessitated a campaign of education, and this campaign is still at its height. Hudson County is made up of a number of distinct local communities, each regarding its public affairs from an independent and isolated point of view, and generally in a spirit of competition and jealousy. The marked topographical divisions of the county have aggravated sectional feeling to an unusual degree. As a consequence there has been a disposition to look upon the county parks as of little value, except to the people of the district adjoining each park. This feeling, entertained by intelligent and generally well-informed citizens, presented a difficulty to be contended with; for, unquestionably, if it were maintained, it would nullify a large share of the value to the county of the properties proposed to be acquired for a park system.

A park standing by itself and little used, except by those living near it, would be very different from a park which is to stand as one of a system. In the latter case the fitness of a site will be found in its adaptation to supply some peculiar form of park refreshment that others of the system are ill-adapted to supply, or are naturally excluded from supplying. In a word, the design, under the policy which the commission is trying to establish, is to develop features in every locality which will give distinctive interest because of the development of altogether different attractions elsewhere.

If due advantage is taken of the particular capabilities of each section the result will be incomparably better than can possibly be gained under a policy, such as seems to be commonly entertained, of regarding each proposed park as an independent affair, deriving no interest from its relation to others, and imparting nothing of value to the interest of others.

In a word, the commission is endeavoring to present the result of a scientific plan to establish water and landscape views in situations either neglected, destroyed or condemned for such purposes by public opinion at least two generations previously. The park system

of Hudson County to-day presents to the people a clear indication of the ultimately beautiful and useful parks they will own. The foundation has been laid, so that the parks can be seen and enjoyed while their development into the complete and perfect system designed is being carried forward.

THE BOSTON METROPOLITAN PARK SYSTEM

BY WILLIAM B. DE LAS CASAS,
Chairman, Metropolitan Park Commission, Boston, Mass.

The original topography of Boston was ill suited for use by a great population. It was that of a peninsula, almost an island, rising abruptly from the harbor in three drumlin-shaped hills. Nearby were islands and peninsulas of similar formation, separated from each other and from the mainland by river and harbor, and by broad stretches of marsh reaching irregularly into the glacial slope from surrounding hills of almost solid rock. The panorama which they made was one of remarkable beauty and diversity, and there were many favorable spots along the rivers and upon the glacial slopes suitable for farming and fishing, which were soon sought out and occupied. Scattered villages grew up about these early settlements, and Boston came to be a city with many suburbs, each quite separate in local interest and government, yet all looking to it as their chief city. In 1880 the aggregate population within a radius of twelve miles was about eighty thousand; it is now almost one million four hundred thousand.

The development of these separate localities, and the many changes of topography required to accommodate a rapidly increasing population, gradually brought the community of interest in many ways, which, in other parts of the world, has usually led to combination into one great city. But Boston and its suburbs have sought union chiefly to provide for the general necessities, such as water, sewerage and parks, and in other respects have retained their local forms of government.

The method adopted has been that of creating, through the agency of the state, metropolitan districts and metropolitan commissions, with the specific authority to provide for these districts trunk lines or main features which could not, or would not be likely to be provided by the separate municipalities. These metropolitan works have in no wise interfered with the local autonomy of the several municipalities; and each has its local water system, fed by

the metropolitan main lines, its local sewerage, which discharges into the metropolitan main lines, and such local parks, wholly within the town or city lines, as were secured either in advance of the metropolitan system, or subsequently to provide for local uses not likely to be provided for by metropolitan parks.

In many cases the local parks alone make a very complete system. For example, Boston has parks aggregating about five hundred acres, the larger part of which are included in Franklin Park, the Fenway, Jamaica way, the Arborway and Arboretum, and Columbia Road and Marine Park, all of which connect and form an encircling parkway through the midst of the southerly half or part of the city. In addition it has many small parks and playgrounds. All are highly developed city parks, and have cost approximately sixteen million dollars. The nearby city of Cambridge has acquired and partly developed its frontage on Charles River for about four miles, and provided a number of playgrounds at an aggregate cost of about two million five hundred thousand dollars. Other cities and towns within the district have provided for themselves similar playgrounds and parks, and the city of Lynn has acquired for mixed park and water purposes over two thousand acres of high, rocky, well-wooded land on its northern borders. Altogether these local parks aggregate about five thousand acres, and have cost about twenty million dollars.

The metropolitan park system resulted from public agitation by men who rightly believed, and with constant earnestness urged, that increasing population was destroying the beauty of scenery and the opportunities for recreation which nature had given so abundantly about Boston. In 1892 a metropolitan park commission of three was appointed to investigate the matter. Their report led to the active work which has resulted in the present metropolitan park system. The initial legislation, chapter 407 of the acts of 1893, authorized an unsalaried commission of five to name its own chairman and have jurisdiction within a metropolitan district made up of Boston and thirty-seven surrounding cities and towns. This jurisdiction was limited only by the statutory definition of its purposes, and by the amount of appropriations. The powers of the board have since been somewhat enlarged and more completely defined by many acts, giving authority to provide and build parkways, bath-

houses and other park structures, and by appropriations which have increased the original appropriation of \$1,000,000 to a present approximate appropriation of \$14,000,000.

As a result of the discretion and powers thus delegated, metropolitan parks or reservations aggregating over 10,000 acres have been secured. Of these about seven thousand five hundred acres include the most notable rock and woodland of the district. Blue Hills Reservation, twelve miles from the state house, contains 4,700 acres of almost unbroken woodland rising into many hilltops, of which Great Blue Hill, at the westerly end, 640 feet above the ocean, is the highest. The reservation is five miles long, and its easterly end is within one-half mile of the harbor. It has but one large pond and but a few acres of open fields. Only a few miles of public highway cross it, but about twenty miles of woods roads have been built within its limits, and three parkways, Neponset River to the westerly end, Blue Hills to the center and Furnace Brook to the easterly end, are planned to give convenient approaches and connection from Stony Brook Woods, Neponset River, Quincy Shore and outside parkways, and some of the more important highways which run through the denser population and gradually converge into the Boston park system. The reservation is easily reached by electric cars.

Middlesex Fells, five miles from the state house, contains 2,200 acres of rocky woodland, while immediately adjoining is a metropolitan water reservation of 1,000 acres, which together make in effect one reservation of 3,200 acres. It is bordered by five cities and towns with large populations, and is crossed by seven miles of public highway. The scenery and topography are diversified with 600 acres of water in many ponds and streams and numerous hilltops, of which Bear Hill, 350 feet above the ocean, is the highest. Over twenty miles of woods roads have been built since it was acquired, and three parkways give approach to it: Mystic Valley on the west, Fellsway in the center and Lynn Fells at the east.

Mystic Valley Parkway, of such size and amplitude as to be more a reservation than a parkway, runs along the Mystic Lakes and Mystic River, and will connect with Alewife Brook and Fresh Pond Parkways to Charles River, and at Fellsway with Revere Beach Parkway to Revere Beach and the east and north shores;



Lynn Fells Parkway, now connecting only with one of the main highways of the district, is expected ultimately to connect with Lynn Woods and with the north shore at Lynn; Fellsway from the center of the reservation runs to within two miles of the state house, crossing Mystic Valley and Revere Beach Parkways. Electric car lines give approach on the east and west, and a new line of the elevated system from Boston runs in Fellsway to and through the center of the reservation, and to a connection with a line from Stoneham, Lowell and Lawrence. Several railroad stations are within easy walking distance of the reservation.

The metropolitan system also includes many miles of seashore reservation, chiefly sandy beach unsuited for commerce, but of greatest beauty and convenience as recreation grounds. Lynn Shore, with sea wall and driveway, borders Swampscott and Lynn and connects with Nahant beaches, which in turn border both sides of the road to Nahant, all with a total of 12.13 miles of beach and harbor frontage. Revere Beach, three miles long, forming a single crescent of hard beach bordered by a driveway, is the great beach resort of the metropolitan district, being within five miles of the state house, and accessible for a five-cent electric car fare to more than one-half of the metropolitan population. Winthrop Shore, one mile long, more local in its use, although nearer Boston than Revere Beach, is also within a five-cent car fare.

On the southeasterly side of the harbor lie Quincy Shore, one mile long, bordering the city of Quincy and a short distance from the Dorchester end of Boston; and Nantasket Beach, at the extreme southeast of the district, a most beautiful sand beach reached by steamboat from the harbor, which makes in to within 200 feet of it, and by electric cars and by the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad from Boston and the southern and eastern parts of the district and state. There are over fifty miles of river bank included in the metropolitan park system, of which over thirty miles are along both sides of Charles River, ten miles along Mystic River, and the rest along Neponset River. Driveways have been built or planned for along these rivers wherever feasible.

The development of the reservations has been made conservatively, although more rapidly than was expected when the work was begun. In the woods reservations the woods roads have been

built to serve as fire guards and as a preliminary means of reaching them. Occasional shelters and sanitary and refectory buildings have been provided. At the beaches, border roads, walks and shelters, and three bathhouses of most modern type and equipment, and sanitary and emergency buildings, all of substantial permanent construction, have been provided.

The parkways of the metropolitan system have been built according to the most modern type with incidental provision for protection of their parkway features by the construction of central grass spaces for electric cars and of flanking roads for traffic. A speedway, with mile, half-mile and quarter-mile course, show ring, and a general driveway, has been provided in Boston, Brighton District, between Charles River and Soldiers Field, the Harvard athletic grounds. Bridges of various types of concrete, reinforced concrete and modern piling have been built incident to parkway construction. All construction work has been of very simple but permanent form, except in the case of the woods roads, where the effort has been to keep the general appearance of quiet country roads. Excellent results attained in all construction is due to the combined efforts of the commission and its engineers, landscape architect and architect working in harmony.

The reservations and parkways are grouped for supervision into six divisions, each with its superintendent and local forces and division headquarters, including generally police station, emergency, sanitary and work accommodations. These divisions report directly to the secretary of the board, who is also executive officer in consultation with the chairman and sub-committees of the commission. A police force of one hundred men, including foot, horse and river patrol and detective inspectors, are assigned by the general office to the division superintendents according to necessity. In winter, when strictly police duties are light, they have outdoor work and indoor military drill and emergency instruction. The general office includes bookkeeping, recording, purchasing, law and claims, and engineering departments under the direction of the commission, its sub-committees and the secretary. The commission has its sub-committee for each branch of the service and for each division, with the chairman a member of each, and all report to and consult with the entire board at its regular meetings as occasion may require.

Of the total expenditures thus far made about one-half, that is \$7,000,000, has been for land, and one-half for development and construction. The annual cost of maintenance is about five hundred thousand dollars. All these figures are likely to vary from year to year as development increases and new reservations and parkways are added. They will be materially increased next year by transfer to the board of the new Charles River dam, embankment and basin between Boston and Cambridge, built by a special commission. The appropriations are made in the first instance by the state. The annual appropriations for maintenance are included in the state tax for the year, and other appropriations are gradually repaid in annual payments also included in the state tax. The amount of the annual payment to be made by each city and town is determined by a table of percentages prepared once in five years by the superior court upon report of a special commission appointed by it for that purpose.

CITY PLANNING AND PHILADELPHIA PARKS

BY ANDREW WRIGHT CRAWFORD,

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There is pessimism in America concerning cities and the government thereof. The effect of this is unfortunate; it tends to induce inaction rather than action. Had the forces spent in criticism been spent in constructive effort, the work and the joy of it would have been sufficient reward for the pessimists themselves and the results would have benefited their fellowmen whose condition they impotently deplore.

Good results, however, have not been wholly wanting. The problem of municipal government is known to be a problem. The attention of the public is directed to it. It is remarkable that until late years such attention was largely academic. No other form of government governs us so intimately. We cannot leave our homes without experiencing what the municipal government is doing for us. We cannot be at home without feeling what the municipal government is doing for us. Is the sewage system adequate? Are the streets well paved and well cleaned? Is the street lighting and is the house lighting good and at reasonable rates? Is the water we drink pure? Is the air we breathe wholesome? Are the houses that we occupy at the cheapest rents safely constructed? Can we get from our homes to our places of work by direct means of communication, at short intervals, in quick time and at cheap rates? Are our children well taught in safe and sanitary buildings? Have they safe places in which to play? Are facilities for our own outdoor enjoyment near enough for us to make use of them? Are the housing facilities of our poorest neighbors sufficiently sanitary to prevent their own death and the death of ourselves and our dear ones because of contagion produced by unhealthy living conditions? Does business work smoothly and easily because of adequate facilities in transportation by street, rail and river? These are questions the solution of which depends wholly or in a great part upon the governments of our cities. The state and federal governments affect us each day in a far less intimate way.

In the city, as elsewhere, one function interacts with another and upon another. We may have adequate rules as to house building, and yet if the transportation is dear or if the train service is inadequate or if the distance to be traveled is great, housing conditions are apt to be bad. Direct and quick transportation between a man's work and his home is an important element in determining just what kind of a home he will find when he reaches it. Street railway systems are not the only means of city transportation. The streets themselves are equally means of transportation. If in going to his work a man must take the two sides of a right-angled triangle instead of the hypotenuse he will lose considerable time because of the increase in distance and possibly because of the necessary change of cars with the wait for the second car. A short space of time is lost on each trip per day, but if we multiply his daily loss by the number of working days in each year to find out what he has lost and multiply his loss by a number that equals the population of the city, we will have some idea of the loss in time and the resulting loss in energy and efficiency that is caused by the gridiron system of streets that our city governments have generally given us. If the streets are as badly planned as in New York, with the few north and south streets, which are much less numerous than the less needed east and west streets, the close packing of women against men on the overcrowded transit lines is apt to result in a general lowering of the moral life of the community.

The necessary relation between the street system and the organic life of the community is obvious, but how vitally it affects that life has not yet been determined. In America we have begun, and only just begun, to analyze it and measure it. In Germany the question has been studied more intently but its solution has not been reached. What is the relationship between the street system and the commercial life of the city? What is the relationship between the street system and the home life? What is the bearing of the street system upon all the other features of the life of city dwellers?

Ten years ago "the city plan" was generally understood to mean the plan of city streets. During this decade the study of the problem of the city government to which the pessimists directed us by their despair has been proceeding as it never proceeded before. All the forms of city life have been investigated. The Pittsburgh survey has been completed—or, I should say, the completion of the

Pittsburgh survey has begun the study of Pittsburgh. Clearer and clearer has become the recognition that the functions of the city whether governmental, commercial, industrial, educational, social, recreational or religious will depend to some extent, an extent not yet indicated, upon the physical city. The study of the physical city has been prosecuted. Nearly every city of importance has a duly appointed body that is studying the city plan, and that study has caused an enlargement of the meaning of the term. The city plan has come to mean practically the entire physical aspect of the city. It covers the system of streets, the system of transportation, the development of the water front, improvement in the appearance of public buildings, and, very tentatively, of private buildings; the opening of parks, playgrounds and recreation piers; the creation of sufficient means of communication by the transportation system and by the street system so that workmen may reach their homes, in the words of the Parliamentary Commission, "at short intervals, in quick time and at cheap rates." This is the meaning of "the city plan" as it is now understood.

Much has been accomplished in the past decade and reports that are inspiring have been issued. The plan of the street system of Washington has been studied with important results. The effect of a good plan on the future of the city as shown by Washington and Buffalo and of a bad plan as shown by Philadelphia has been noted. The Metropolitan Improvement Commission of Boston has just issued its report covering "the metropolitan plan" for adopting "a systematic method of internal communication by highways," as well as railroads and railroad terminals, water-front development, docks, waterways and civic centers. Adequate street system plans are being evolved throughout the country.

Dependent upon the plan of the streets is the system of transportation by surface or overhead railroads. Largely, but not absolutely, dependent upon that plan is the system of underground roads. Generally they will follow the line of the streets, though the London "Tuppenny Tube" shows that this is not necessary. Dependent upon the street system is the adequacy of the park system. Parks that are not accessible easily and cheaply are useless. Parks and playgrounds must be chosen with reference to the street system. Heretofore they have been chosen frequently without regard to the street system. Witness the example of Central

Park in New York City, placed so that it absolutely cuts off two of the ten or eleven main arteries running north and south. Pope Park in Hartford is a less conspicuous example.

In America the development of river fronts as they have been developed abroad will be, I venture to predict, the striking development of the next twenty years. It is bound to come as the result of the study of the physical city. It will be striking because the change from the slum-like condition of our river banks to that of the most highly-improved districts of the city cannot but arrest attention. But the city plan will have broader and deeper effects than this conspicuous one.

How are street systems to be devised to provide for the changes that have taken place heretofore and that will take place hereafter whereby what is at one time a residential district becomes the home of the poorest, and again the most sought for business area. In this process, how may the slum be avoided? A district may be inhabited first by the poor and then by the rich, or the reverse may be the process. Examples of both processes taking place now may be found within the old city of William Penn of two square miles. The expansion of the business center at the cost of the residential district is familiar. I am not attempting to determine which in general will precede and which will follow. But obviously a street system prepared solely with the idea that the area covered will forever be residential may have serious results when the handsome residence of one family becomes the lowly home of several families. The darkened smoke-house at the back of the residence may be a serious menace if it becomes the home of a family of twelve. What provisions should be made by the city government for such changes in the character of the occupancy of individual houses? What relationship does the street system have to that character?

However admirable the street system, the buildings that front on an individual street in one case may show excellent housing conditions and in another unpardonably bad housing conditions. However admirable the location of a street yet the paving and cleaning of it may be wretched. Perhaps the relationship of housing conditions to the street system is no more necessary; yet there is a relationship. What is the relationship? The Germans have begun to study it. We understand that there is one, and investigation has been begun. The National Conference on City Planning held last

spring in Washington directed the preparation of a special report thereon.

This problem of the city plan is more fundamental and significant than any one of its features. They all depend upon it. The possibilities of some features are little understood. The Chicago extension of the public service of playgrounds has broadened the scope of such service far beyond that of the familiar city parks or squares.

The system of parks and playgrounds is vital not only from the point of view of the City Beautiful, but equally from that of the City Healthful, and it should be made so from the point of view of the City Convenient. The death rate of well-parked and bountifully gardenized Bourneville, the home of day-workers, is half that of the average of our cities.

Curiously enough the study of the park system and of playground development has been the means of leading on to the study of the city plan. Foremost among the plans for the physical development of the city were the park plans of metropolitan Boston and of Kansas City, both published in 1893. Five years earlier New York City grasped for it with a grasp that then proved and still remains ineffective, though a beginning was indeed accomplished in the Bronx system of parks. After the inception of the Boston system came other park movements such as the notable Essex County system and the Washington plan. These are but a few of the park plans that have been published since the Boston plan of 1893. Many of these plans are described in detail in accompanying articles. This idea of preserving parks in out-lying districts was denominated at first the Outer Park Movement. Accompanying it was the agitation for creating playgrounds and more numerous city squares in built-up sections. Second- and third-class cities and even villages have undertaken the work.

The movement has resulted in minute details as witnessed by the improvement of back yards and the erection of attractive sign posts; and in magnificent plans for cosmopolitan development such as the Chicago report published by the Commercial Club of that city within the year. In all the later reports the co-ordination between the street system and the park system has become more and more the dominant note.

In Philadelphia there has been the same development. In

1884 the Metropolitan Public Gardens Association of London was formed. In 1888, through the familiarity of some of Philadelphia's leading women with the work of that association, The City Parks Association was formed, then called the Small Parks Association. In 1902 The City Parks Association published a pamphlet on the City Plan, which, I believe, was the first formal association report on that subject in America. In 1903 the association published the well-known report on American Park Systems. In 1907 its plan for a comprehensive park system for Philadelphia was published. In 1909 that plan was adopted formally by the city administration. Since the formation of the association thirty-six "city squares," averaging about four acres each, nineteen small triangular green spots, and eleven large parks covering, as acquired, about ten hundred and fifty acres, and, in addition, as placed upon the confirmed city plan, about fourteen hundred acres, have been preserved through appropriate action of councils. Parkways eight miles in length are in course of construction and an additional seven miles have been placed upon the confirmed city plan by similar action. The present acreage of the parks selected prior to 1888 is three thousand five hundred and eighty-one.

The Philadelphia park plan of 1909 does not attempt to forecast in detail the system of city streets, but it does attempt not to interfere in any way with that system or the principle of it. It adopts the principle of the radial system of streets, not the Penn plan of gridirons. As elsewhere, the natural topography of the city was studied and parks recommended accordingly. Running transversely from northwest to southeast are five water courses. One of these is the Wissahickon Creek continued by the Schuylkill River, already largely preserved for park purposes. The other four are the creek valleys paralleling the Wissahickon and called respectively the Poquessing, the Pennypack, Tacony and Cobb's Creek. They lie a distance of from three to four miles from each other. These creek valleys are deep and narrow and usually about two hundred yards from hill-crest to hill-crest. Their depth and sloping sides make them undesirable for building purposes and particularly adaptable and attractive for park purposes.

The grade of streets in general should be level because transportation is done most cheaply on level roads. Harriman's famous low-grade freight line in the West is but this principle applied to

railroads. If streets are then to be carried at a level across these valleys the city will be responsible for the cost caused by the change of grade, and these costs will amount to a greater sum than the cost of taking the valleys for park purposes. This argument has been an effective one in securing the adoption of the plan by the city government. In the last two or three years large portions of the three valleys of the Tacony, Cobb's and Pennypack creeks have been preserved.

The attention directed to the subject of park development has resulted in the concurrent creation of a number of new city squares, heretofore referred to, and in the creation of a playground commission whose report will probably be published before this volume of *THE ANNALS* is printed.

The park movement in Philadelphia has been signalized further by the preservation of places of historic interest. A notable instance during the past year was the acquisition by the city of the homestead of James Logan, Secretary to William Penn, a building described by the late Charles F. McKim as the most perfect example of colonial architecture in America.

A superb feature of the movement here is the undertaking by the city of an improvement that has caused and is causing the greatest interest throughout the country. This is the Fairmount Park Parkway. This parkway is designed to connect the City Hall at the center of the city with Fairmount Park, which lies in a diagonal direction to the northwest about a mile away. The design is to create a great avenue fully the equal of the boasted boulevards of foreign cities. The project has been under consideration for many years and has had its victories and its defeats. It has, I trust, won a final and definite place upon the city plan. Its construction is being pushed with vigor by this administration, to which great credit for constructive work in the broader meaning of the term "city plan" is due.

The development of the water fronts on the Schuylkill and Delaware rivers is being planned. The necessity is seen. The opportunities are not realized, but the plan is engaging the thought of the city officials. It has even been undertaken in some of its details so far as commercial development is concerned; but it has not yet been undertaken on the lines of the London and Paris Embankments.

The necessity of the supervision of public buildings by an adequate body of architects and art-loving financiers of the city is understood, but the art jury, authorized by act of the legislature, has not yet been appointed. The supervision of the main façades of private dwellings such as exists in Paris is whispered. Is it sufficiently democratic ever to get a strong hold in America? I doubt it. I trust it is inadequate to gain any hold. The remedy for wretched architecture in private dwellings is education in taste, not control from above.

The park system of Philadelphia cannot be adequate unless action by adjoining counties is induced. An act of the legislature was passed within the year which makes such action possible. In Philadelphia as in every other city it is true that the community for which plans should be prepared is not the community within the particular boundary of the city concerned. The life of a community is the life of the people who live their active lives there. A man who lives in one of Philadelphia's suburbs is not legally a citizen of Philadelphia, but in the broad sense of the city plan he is just as much a citizen as the man who votes in the city.

Realizing this fundamental fact the City Parks Association has just published a report in which it urges the creation of a commission to study the development of the city. The appointment of such a commission is recommended in a letter of the mayor which is published with the report. The recommendation of the report, which is characteristic of similar reports elsewhere, is: "Let the work assigned to this commission be to prepare a plan for the systematic development of the region within twenty-five miles of the City Hall, or farther if the commission approves. Let the report cover transportation, the street system, the river front, parks, playgrounds, civic centers, so that there shall result (1) the preservation of the system of two-story houses; (2) the creation of a greater commercial city; and (3) the beautification of the entire community."

In conjunction with all this it is well to weigh the words of one of the consistent and effective city plan workers of the country, Frederick Law Olmsted. In a letter to me concerning the project just noted he says:

I hope that in discussing and advocating it you will emphasize much more than you do in this report the fundamental principle, hinted at in the

last sentence quoted from Mayor Reyburn . . . in the phrase "of elasticity to meet the varying conditions which may confront successive administrations." The general attitude in America about city plans, too much in evidence in nearly all the recent developments in that line, is that a city plan can be prepared in a year or two or three which can be regarded as providing a tolerably complete solution of the problems of city planning for a long period to come, which can be definitely adopted and placed on file, and which thenceforth only needs to be systematically and somewhat mechanically followed in order to produce the sought-for results. It is apt to be looked upon as a sort of "handout" from a superior order of enlightened citizens and their "experts" possessed of "constructive imagination," etc., to the mechanical minded persons concerned in doing the daily drudgery of municipal administration; to serve as a guide and charter which will thereafter keep the latter to the proper lines of activity. This attitude is closely akin to that which makes it so much easier to arouse almost any American to an interest in putting forth work and money for a new piece of construction than for the proper maintenance of existing things.

Here is a thought well worth while. Cities must be developed on some consistent plan. A plan that is of the rigidity of our cast-iron gridiron system is quite inadequate, but for that gridiron system we must be careful not to substitute some other cast-iron system.

The necessity for such care has been brought home to us by the possibilities of Chicago's playgrounds referred to in another article. The advocates of city parks have had at times an exceedingly difficult fight to make against their use for various public buildings. In Philadelphia, attempts were made to put public libraries upon them, and great monuments were proposed for them; in New York City, public schools were almost ordered upon them by the legislature. So vigilant was it necessary to be that the principle "no building of any kind upon the open space created by a park" has become rooted in the mind of the park advocate. When we see such admirable buildings as are erected upon the Chicago playgrounds whereby open spaces created for parks are made available in winter and summer, whereby thousands and tens of thousands are attracted to the open air of the public playgrounds, we are forced to realize that the principle of no buildings upon our public squares is too rigid. Any building that is really germane to the use of the square as an *open* public space for the health and enjoyment of the citizens must be admitted.

In regard to plans of development only broad principles should be sketched. Details can be arranged later. "The varying condi-

tions of successive administrations" demand an elasticity of which some of the plans that have seen their birth within the last ten years do not admit. We must have plans of development and they must be sufficiently rigid and sufficiently wise to secure their adoption by the different minds of successive administrators,—but they must be capable of reasonable variation; and the park system as a component part of the organic system of the ever-growing city must be capable of change.

THE PARK MOVEMENT IN MADISON, WISCONSIN

BY CHARLES N. BROWN,

Secretary of the Madison Park and Pleasure Drive Association.

The park movement in our city has had an exceptional, if not a unique, development. It has been practically a private enterprise, carried out by private individuals with private funds raised by popular subscription administered by a private corporation, acting as trustee for the city.

Our city is situated upon the borders of three lakes, Mendota, Monona and Wingra, named in order of their size. The state university is situated on the south shore of Lake Mendota, occupying about a mile of lake front. Through these grounds driveways open to the general public were laid out about thirty years ago. Later, one of our public-spirited citizens, Mr. George Raymer, laid out a very interesting driveway upon land which he owned overlooking the lake, two or three miles outside the city.

In 1892 a movement was started to construct a driveway along the lake shore from the University Driveway to the Raymer Drive. This involved unusual difficulties, as it was necessary to cross a soft marsh more than half a mile in width. Several persons interested in the work organized themselves into a committee and opened a preliminary campaign. Prominent citizens were induced to write letters to the newspapers over their own signatures, urging the desirability of the driveway. Even "Old Settler," "Inquirer" and "Pro Bono Publico" gave us the benefit of their influence. When sufficient interest had been excited, subscription papers were circulated and \$6,000 was raised, which was expended by the committee in 1892 and 1893.

After the driveway was constructed it became obvious that some organization was necessary in order to look after and maintain it, and in 1894 the Madison Park and Pleasure Drive Association was incorporated, without capital stock, to acquire and hold lands in trust for the city for park and pleasure driveway purposes, both outside and inside the city. At first only those who contributed \$25 or more each year were entitled to membership,

but later the annual membership was cut down to \$5. For several years the work of the association was confined to maintaining and extending driveways outside the city limits, the largest undertaking being the Farwell Drive along the east shore of Lake Mendota from the city to and through the grounds of the State Hospital for the Insane at Mendota. This was done at a cost of something more than \$10,000, the money all being subscribed in one year.

In 1899 eighteen acres of a tract of soft marsh in the city limits, lying near the outlet to Lake Mendota and along the canal connecting it with Lake Monona, was acquired for park purposes, \$5,000 of the cost being contributed by Mr. Tenney, whose name the park now bears. As material for filling was scarce, lagoons were constructed and the material excavated was used in filling the remainder of the park.

The work of improving the driveways and completing the park was continued until 1903, when a still more ambitious project was undertaken. This was the deepening of the channel between Lakes Mendota and Monona and the construction of a lock at the outlet of Lake Mendota. In order to make a clearance of eight feet, several city bridges and four railroad bridges had to be raised and the railroads were obliged to elevate their tracks upon either shore for considerable distances. The special subscription for this work for the year 1903 was something more than \$20,000. The city bore the expense of the construction of the city bridges, and the railroads, in rebuilding bridges and raising tracks, expended about \$40,000. In its completed state the Yahara Parkway consists of a channel about a mile in length, bordered on each side for nearly the whole distance with a parkway from 50 to 100 feet in width, laid out with walks and driveways and planted with trees and flowering shrubs. The lock and the deepened channel afford launches and power boats ready access from one lake to the other, and during the summer season it is thronged with pleasure boats. Fine residences are beginning to be built upon the filled land fronting it.

The object-lesson afforded by the improvement and development of Tenney Park made the desirability of parks in other localities so evident that in 1904 Senator Vilas purchased a tract of land adjacent to the third of our lakes, Lake Wingra, at an expense of \$18,000, and contributed an additional sum of \$10,000 for the

purpose of its improvement. The land purchased had been platted as an addition to the city, but never had been built upon, owing to its location adjacent to the lake. Although called a lake by courtesy, it was really only about one-quarter water, the remainder being a bog covered by cat-tails and bulrushes and entirely impassable except when frozen. The money for improving the park was expended in pumping material from the outer edge of this tract of bog and filling up about thirty-six acres of bog adjacent to the twenty-four acres of land purchased. A considerable area of the bog was cleared out and the adjacent lake was deepened to $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet.

Two years later another of our wealthy citizens contributed \$16,000 for the purpose of making a park on Lake Monona, now called Brittingham Park in honor of the donor. This was constructed upon a bay separated from the main body of the lake by two railroad tracks. The shore was boggy, and as it had been for years the dumping-ground of all sorts of refuse it had come to be a disgrace to the city. This park with its additions, made possible by Mr. Brittingham's gifts, is a mile or more in length and about twenty acres in area, and has cleaned up and beautified a portion of the lake shore which was very obnoxious. Mr. Brittingham has also contributed \$7,500 for a bathhouse in the park, which is just completed.

While this other work was going on, Tenney Park was doubled in size by acquiring the remainder of the tract adjacent to it, and the improvement of this addition is now nearly completed. In this we were again aided by the contributions of Mr. Tenney.

The growth and popularity of the work are strikingly shown by a *resumé* of the contributions received. As before stated, the amount subscribed to start the work in 1892 was \$6,000. In 1894 and 1895, when the work was limited to maintenance, the amounts received were respectively \$655 and \$995. In 1896, when the first driveway was macadamized, \$1,580 was raised. In 1897, to construct the driveway to the state hospital, the subscription was \$10,160. In 1898 the amount raised was \$2,171. In 1899, exclusive of \$5,778 subscribed for Tenney Park, \$3,231 was subscribed for the general work of the association. The next four years the subscriptions were \$5,313, \$5,286, \$5,409 and \$5,036, besides, in the latter year, 1903, \$20,621 raised for the Yahara Parkway. In 1904 the general subscription was \$5,665, besides a special subscription

of \$4,658 for the Parkway. In the same year, besides Senator Vilas' gift of \$18,000 to purchase land for Henry Vilas Park, \$10,000 was specially subscribed for its improvement; \$1,100 was subscribed for improving Monona Lake Park, besides other subscriptions amounting to \$418. The next year the contributions, including \$5,600 for an addition to Tenney Park and \$8,000 for Brittingham Park, amounted to \$34,601. In 1906 they amounted to \$18,441; in 1907 to \$15,741; in 1908, including a gift of \$7,500 for the erection of a bathhouse during the present year, \$29,966; for 1909, including a bequest of twelve acres of land valued at \$15,000, the contributions amount to \$27,380. This makes the total amount of subscriptions from 1892 to April 27, 1909, \$242,669. In this sum is counted only the money contributed directly to the association by private individuals, and it does not take into account any of the moneys expended by the railroad companies or appropriated by the city, nor does it take into account gifts to the city amounting to \$56,000 for lands and small parks and playgrounds and for the \$10,000 memorial bridge contributed by Hon. Halle Steensland, which forms one of the finest features of the Yahara Parkway.

In connection with the amount subscribed it should be noted that the population of Madison when this work commenced was about 13,000, and that its population has just about doubled in the seventeen years that the work has been in progress.

As the result of this effort, the association owns fourteen miles of pleasure drives outside the city, of which nine have macadamized pavement. It has 142 acres of land in driveways and parks outside the city, and 155 acres of parks inside the city. Besides the canal in the Yahara Parkway, we have a canal two miles in length connecting Lake Monona with Lake Wingra. Practically all of these parks have been reclaimed from ground which was offensive and unsightly, if not unhealthy, by reason of its natural or acquired condition.

That the work is a popular one is shown not only by the aggregate of the gifts, but by the subscriptions in detail. The first year of our corporate existence we had twenty-six subscribers. Last year the general subscription for improvement and maintenance was about \$8,400. Of this there was one subscription of \$1,000, two subscriptions of \$200 each, one subscription of \$100, one sub-

scription of \$75, seven subscriptions of \$50 each, one subscription of \$30, nine subscriptions of \$25, one subscription of \$20, twenty-six subscriptions of \$15 each, one hundred and fifty-two subscriptions of \$10 each, one subscription of \$8, one subscription of \$7, three hundred and ninety-three subscriptions of \$5 each and ninety-five subscriptions of smaller amounts. It will be noticed that more than one-half of the subscribers paid \$5 each, and that nearly one-quarter of the whole subscription was made by those paying that sum.

The association holds the parks and drives which have been donated to it in trust for the benefit of the city of Madison. Its officers, with two exceptions, are elected in annual meeting. The two exceptions are the mayor, who is *ex officio* a director, and one alderman elected annually by the common council. The corporation is absolutely non-partisan and non-political. There never has been any question raised as to the politics or religion of any officer or director. Our president was Prohibition candidate for governor, and for many years we had the leading brewer in the city upon our board, as well as a Catholic priest.

The money raised by subscriptions, as well as the money appropriated to us by the city of Madison, is spent entirely under the direction of the association, without dictation or supervision by the city, but we have been careful from the beginning to publish and furnish our members with detailed reports of the expenditures made. We nominate the park superintendent and he is elected by the common council, but otherwise all of the employees are employed by us and are solely responsible to us. It is a matter of common remark that our work has been done more economically than it could have been done by employees of the city, probably owing to closer supervision. There has never been the slightest suspicion of politics or influence in connection with the employment of any person, or in connection with anything done by the association.

Although the work has been so largely a private and personal enterprise, yet the city has given it substantial support. Up to date it has issued bonds to the amount of \$84,500; it has levied a direct tax of \$8,000 to secure park lands, and it has expended enough more upon streets and sewers necessitated by park construction to bring the total up to \$103,413. This amount, however, will be very considerably increased by work done during the present year in

macadamizing streets leading through two of the parks. This year we have had an annual tax levy of $\frac{1}{2}$ mill, and the same is provided for the coming year. The relations of the city and the association have always been very harmonious, and, generally speaking, they have always done for us whatever we have asked them to do.

Not the least interesting feature of the work is its effect upon our city and upon our citizens. It may be doubted if we really realize how great the benefit has actually been. There has been a very general awakening of interest and pride in the city and an increasing desire for its improvement. To this interest and pride has been added a sense of responsibility and a willingness to co-operate for the common benefit. There has also come a sense of obligation which has led to the giving of a number of small tracts of land within the city for playgrounds and small parks for breathing spaces, and of gifts outside the city for the extension of our driveways. We have a bequest of \$2,000 for a memorial drinking fountain, and a prominent citizen, recently deceased, left us a tract of twelve acres on the lake, just outside the city limits, which will make another beautiful park. The construction of Brittingham Park has led to the reclamation and filling of the whole of the remaining shore of the bay, and property owners have conveyed to us a strip a mile long, next to the water, for a driveway. The habit of giving, which our association has so sedulously cultivated, has aided rather than hindered the various charitable and benevolent enterprises in behalf of which subscription papers have been presented to our citizens.

It is proper to say a word concerning the financial results of the work. When the matter of the appropriation of the $\frac{1}{2}$ -mill tax for the benefit of the association was before the city council a committee was appointed by the mayor to determine what percentage of increased assessment, if any, was due to the work of the association and the city in establishing and maintaining parks and driveways. The committee, which included a justice of the Supreme Court and a member of the State Tax Commission, after an elaborate investigation which involved a comparison of the rates of increase in a number of Wisconsin cities, reported that, in their opinion, from 10 to 15 per cent. of the increase in the value of taxable property is "attributable to the establishment of parks, drives, playgrounds and open spaces in and about Madison, by and through the activities of the city, its citizens and the Park and

Pleasure Drive Association." Put in dollars and cents, the increase is from \$1,600,000 to \$2,400,000 and the annual return at the present rate of taxation is from \$24,000 to \$36,000 annually. This is truly an enormous return for the investment. In excess of the interest on the bonds, the annual tax levy to meet the bonds at maturity and the annual charge for maintenance, the city is deriving an income of many thousands of dollars.

One illustration of the increase in value due to park work will be given. In 1905 we purchased about twenty acres for an addition to Tenney Park for \$8,500. To obtain money to fill the remainder we platted about one-sixth of the tract along one side into twenty lots, which brought us \$20,000 after they had been filled by us at a cost of less than \$150 per lot. Our experience has amply verified the general proposition upon which the promoters of parks have ever insisted, that no city can make an investment which will yield longer or surer returns than an investment in parks and driveways.

RECREATION DEVELOPMENTS IN CHICAGO PARKS

BY GRAHAM ROMEYN TAYLOR,
Of "The Survey" Staff; Secretary Playground Association of Chicago.

The large measure of national attention which has been directed toward Chicago's parks during the last half-dozen years testifies to the significance of the new type which that city has recently developed. The Chicago small park recreation centers, for which thus far about \$10,000,000 have been spent or voted, have established a new standard in public provision for recreation. They register the high-water mark in two tides which have been rising during the last two decades—the playground movement and the movement to secure from city parks not only landscape beauty, but a larger human service. They stand for the growing recognition that recreation facilities for the whole family and all the members of the community are just as much needed as the children's playgrounds which are now accepted necessities.

Although the small park recreation centers had already become widely known, their fame was most effectively spread throughout the country in 1907 by the first convention of the Playground Association of America. This gathering was held in Chicago to enable the delegates to observe at first hand the operation of the recreation centers. President Roosevelt in February of that year wrote a letter urging all of our larger municipalities to send representatives to gain the inspiration of the convention and "to see the magnificent system that Chicago has erected in its South Park section, one of the most notable civic achievements of any American city." Among the two hundred delegates were a large number who had been appointed by the mayors of their respective cities. Such official representatives, on returning from the convention, submitted reports in which prominent place was given to descriptions and photographs of Chicago's South Park recreation centers. Through these reports, and the information and enthusiasm disseminated by all who attended the convention, as well as through the constant stream of visitors from all parts of the country, the Chicago facilities for play and recreation may be said to have contributed in no small degree to the

rapid progress of the recreation movement throughout America during the last three years.

The principal purpose of this article, in line with the general title of this volume, is to describe these unique recreation facilities and the extent to which they have been provided for the whole city and to suggest something of their significance. It is also proposed to outline in a few words the city's earlier park history, tell briefly of the movement for an outer parkway belt, and touch upon two recent developments having special recreational interest—the play festivals which bring together young and old of all nationalities, and the Saturday afternoon walks which are leading many people of the city center to a more intimate appreciation of the beautiful regions surrounding Chicago, especially those included in the proposed outer parkway belt of meadow and woodland.

Chicago had been an incorporated city but two years when, in 1839, the first park was established. It occupied the half-block on the lake front where the public library now stands and was named Dearborn Park. From 1839 to 1869 extension was gradual. Seven more were established, among them Union Park, given to the city in 1854, which became the city's principal park. Thirty-four small pieces of land, mostly at street intersections, were added as "beauty spots" before 1870. A tract of land along the lake shore on the north side was urged as a park site in 1860. Public funds were appropriated to improve it in 1864 and the name "Lincoln" was given to it in 1865.

The establishment of Lincoln Park, however, should be considered as part of a movement which made 1869 a memorable year in Chicago's park history. This movement, which crystallized that year in legislation, was for a chain of parks and connecting boulevards starting at Lincoln Park and including Humboldt, Garfield, Douglas, Washington and Jackson parks. These large parks, varying in size from 182 to 542 acres, put Chicago well toward the front among American cities, so that in 1880 it ranked second in park area.

The city's contentment with this proud showing lulled it to comparative inactivity, so far as park extension was concerned. From 1880 to 1903 population increased 272.40 per cent., while park area increased only 58.70 per cent. Chicago then had fallen to seventh among American cities in respect to total park area; but

measured by the test of number of inhabitants to each acre of park space, it had dropped to nineteenth place.

The growth of population, moreover, involved such crowding in the "river wards" that large numbers of people were massed in regions little served by the chain of large parks. Nearly a million people lived more than a mile from any one of them in 1904. Eleven wards, with a population of 425,000, contained 1814 acres of park space—234 people to the acre. The remaining twenty-three wards, with a population of over a million, contained only 228 acres—4720 people to each acre of park space.

As this condition became more and more acute, the great need for children's playgrounds was increasingly urged by those in a position to know the effects of the congestion upon the child life of the community. The residents of social settlements could count the human cost, as few others could, of the failure to provide opportunities for wholesome play. They could not rest without doing something, however little, to meet the problem. Accordingly, in 1893, the first playground was opened by Hull House on land given by Mr. William Kent.¹ Within the next few years Northwestern University Settlement, the University of Chicago Settlement and Chicago Commons opened small playgrounds for the children of their neighborhoods. In 1897 the first school playground was opened in the yard of the Washington school by the West Side district of the Associated Charities.

The beginnings of the playground movement in Chicago were soon followed by municipal action. In 1898 the first public funds, \$1000, were appropriated by the city council. Individuals subscribed \$750 additional. Six schoolyards, their use granted by the Board of Education, were maintained as equipped and supervised playgrounds under the direction of the Vacation School Committee of the Women's Clubs.

The next step was the organization, in 1899, of the Special Park Commission. This came as the result of a resolution passed by the city council at the suggestion of the Municipal Science Club, a group of men which included several social settlement residents. The commission was composed partly of aldermen and partly of

¹Viewing the movement for public recreation in its large significance, the fact is interesting that the donor of the first children's playground in Chicago is also the donor of a national park—the Muir Woods, near San Francisco.

private citizens. Upon it have served members of the older park commissions created by the legislation of 1869.

To understand the park development of the past decade, it is necessary to make clear the powers and limitations of these older park commissions. As a result of the legislation of 1869, the South, West, and Lincoln Park commissions came into being. Each serves one of the three "sides" of Chicago, the divisions naturally made by the Chicago River and its north and south branches.² The South Park Commission consists of five members appointed by the judges of the circuit court; the West and Lincoln Park commissions each consist of seven members appointed by the governor with consent of the state senate. Each commission has power independently of the municipal government to issue bonds not to exceed five per cent. of the assessed valuation of the property in its territory, and also to levy taxes on this property. Under the legislation governing them, they had no authority to establish and maintain playgrounds.

The Special Park Commission, securing its funds from the general corporate funds of the city, undertook at once to establish small playgrounds in the crowded districts. Five were at once started and the system has grown to include fourteen, with two bathing beaches on the Lake Michigan shore. To this commission were turned over the small playgrounds originally conducted by the social settlements.

The work of the Special Park Commission has involved more than the establishment and maintenance of small playgrounds. It made a comprehensive study and report³ of the park and playground needs of the city, including the desirability of securing an outer parkway system.

Finding that adequate funds were not available for it to meet the urgent need for small parks and playgrounds in the congested districts, it started a movement to secure an enlargement of the powers of the older park commissions. To help these commissions the Special Park Commission made a study of conditions and recommended sites for small parks in each of the three sections of the city.

Following out this movement the three older commissions

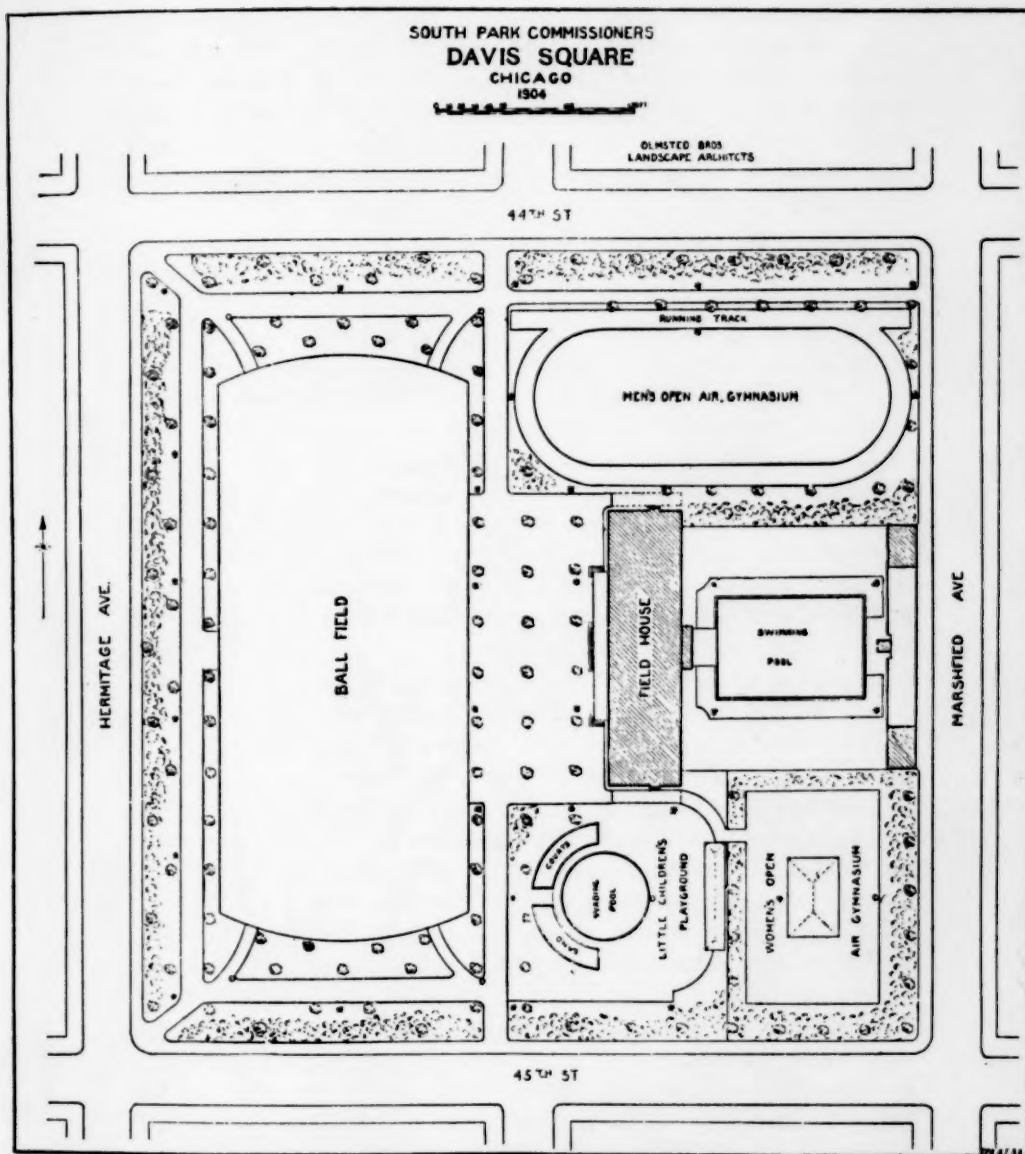
²This is not wholly correct, as a few small outlying areas are under the control of minor commissions organized under the same statutes.

³Metropolitan Park Report, 1904.

secured the passage by the legislature of acts authorizing them to issue bonds for small parks. In each case the necessary referendum vote of the people has been overwhelmingly favorable. The funds which have thus far been secured and spent or set aside for recreation centers amount to \$7,700,000 (out of \$9,500,000 total bond issues) for the South Park Commission; \$1,000,000 for the West Park Commission, and \$750,000 for the Lincoln Park Commission. In noting the much greater proportionate amount secured by the South Park Commission, it should be borne in mind that in its territory lies the downtown district, the park funds from which, therefore, go entirely to the park system of the South Side. The value of the property, therefore, against which this commission has authority to issue bonds and levy taxes far exceeds the combined value of the property over which the West and Lincoln Park commissions have similar powers.

The sums indicated have created Chicago's recreation centers. There are now in operation ten under the South Park Commission, three under the West Park Commission and one under the Lincoln Park Commission. There have been provided the following sites not yet completely improved as recreation centers: nine under the South Park Commission, and two under the Lincoln Park Commission, which has also used some of its money for a playground having no field house. Of the nine South Park Commission sites two are about to be improved as recreation centers at a cost of \$500,000 each. The improvement of the other seven sites must await the securing of further funds from bond issues. Another bond issue of \$1,000,000 by the West Park Commission has been authorized by the legislature and will be submitted to referendum vote in April, 1910. If this sum is secured, it will probably establish three more recreation centers on the West Side.

The great advance registered by this new type of play park over the ordinary playground is readily seen by comparing the recreation centers with the playgrounds conducted by the Special Park Commission, the latter being typical of the kind to be found in many cities throughout the country. The Special Park Commission playgrounds rank high among those of their type and are a very creditable achievement with little money. They average, however, less than an acre in size and are used only by children. Each is equipped with sand courts, swings, teeter boards, slides, giant



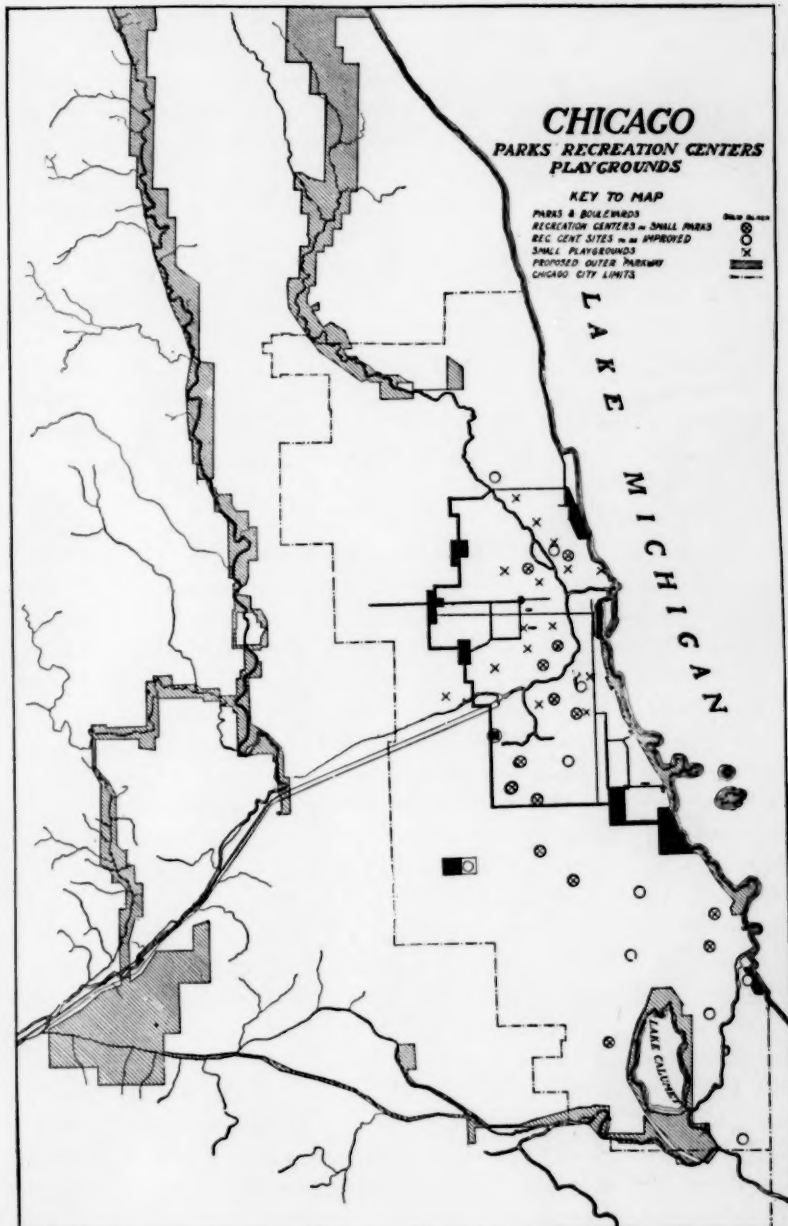
strides and similar facilities. There is a small frame shelter house and each has a man and a woman supervisor. Except for skating in winter the playgrounds are in use only through the summer months, although recently two or three have been provided with indoor gymnasiums for winter use. The annual maintenance expense for each averages less than \$4000. They render, however, very great service to the community, the attendance in 1908, for example, being 2,089,336.

The recreation centers, on the other hand, provide facilities not only for children, but for young people and adults as well, and render service the year round. The grounds vary in extent from two to sixty acres, the average being about ten acres, and have trees, shrubs and lawns. The larger ones have lagoons for boating.

The outdoor facilities include a play field for baseball, football and other games, which is flooded in the winter for skating; a children's playground with swings, teeter boards, slides, giant strides, wading pools and sand courts over which awnings may be stretched, and around which are benches for the mothers who come to watch their children at play, sometimes bringing such work as they can take from their homes. There is an outdoor gymnasium for women and girls over ten years of age, and another for men and boys over ten years of age. A fine outdoor swimming pool is in use from spring until fall. It is surrounded by electric lights, so that it can be used until late in the evening, and two days each week are reserved for women and girls. It also has sand courts, so that the bathers can have some of the pleasures of a beach.

Recreation buildings house the indoor facilities. These consist of two indoor gymnasiums, one for men and boys and the other for women and girls; lockers, shower and plunge baths, refectory, reading room, small club rooms and assembly halls for the entertainments, dances, meetings and social gatherings of the people. The average cost of maintaining each recreation center is \$30,000 a year.

No charge is made for any of the service, except in the refectory, where the food is supplied at cost. The refectories also serve as distributing stations for modified milk, supplied at low cost by the Milk Commission for the use of babies and invalids. There are no concessionaires in the whole system. The South Park Commission, moreover, conducts its own plant for manufacturing ice cream



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and flavoring syrups, and operates laundries for the bathing suits and refectory tablecloths and napkins.

The fact that facilities are grouped, which in some communities are scattered, is worth noting. A public gymnasium, bathhouse, playground, and reading room if grouped in one "plant" not only save much administrative expense, but increase each other's usefulness.

Each recreation center is in charge of a well-educated social director—this being a recent advance step to insure and promote the best use and highest efficiency of the center. The staff includes two men instructors in charge of the men's and boys' indoor gymnasium and outdoor gymnasium, running track and ballfield; and two women instructors for the women's and girls' indoor and outdoor gymnasiums and the children's playground; attendants in the locker rooms, baths, refectory and swimming pool; and a force of janitors and laborers for the buildings and grounds. The Public Library Board supplies the books and attendant for the reading room.

The recreation buildings constructed by the South Park Commission are with one exception built of rough-finished concrete and roofed with green or red tile. One is built of brick, which is also the material used in the three recreation centers established by the West Park Commission, and the one on the north side established by the Lincoln Park Commission.

The use of the facilities would astonish the pessimists who doubt whether the people will take advantage of opportunities. The total attendance on the ten recreation centers on the South Side, for example, numbered 5,175,500 for the twelve months ending November 30, 1907, and this figure does not include visitors or onlookers, but only those who made actual use of the facilities. This was divided as follows: 279,455 in the indoor gymnasiums, 900,948 in the shower baths, 2,164,104 in the outdoor gymnasiums, 654,213 in the swimming pools, 135,978 at social gatherings and lectures in the assembly halls, 28,492 in the smaller clubrooms, 608,585 in the reading rooms and 403,725 customers at 5 cents or more each in the refectories. At one of the West Side recreation centers, located in the midst of a great Polish colony, the attendance on the swimming pool has been as much as 6000 on a single day.

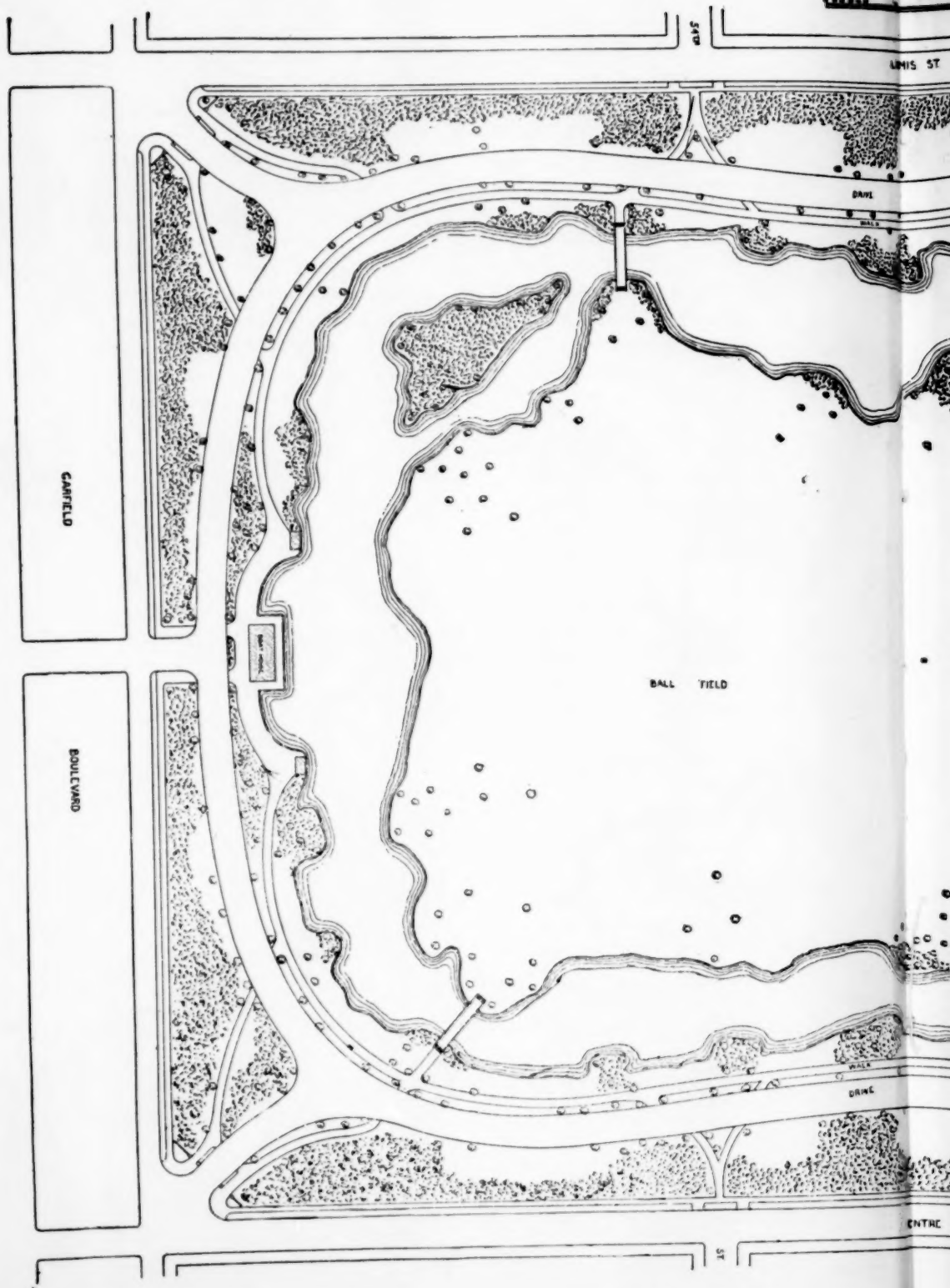
These statistics of attendance, however, are a poor criterion of success and efficiency in playground work. This has been pointed

out repeatedly by Mr. E. B. DeGroot, general director of field houses and playgrounds of the South Park Commission, a man who began his playground experience in the days of the six little schoolyards with their meager equipment, and who now is doing for Chicago work of inestimable value through his expert administration of the manifold service the South Side recreation centers render to the people. He emphasizes the quality of that service—its value not merely in keeping children and older people out of worse things they might be doing, but as a factor of high efficiency in promoting health, good character and public-spirited citizenship. He inspires his subordinates with the same spirit, and their *esprit de corps* testifies to the effectiveness with which he makes his high ideals felt in the daily routine. He has well said in one of his reports, "The best and most patriotic citizenship comes not as a result of compelling obedience to and respect for laws, but as a result of the practice of right ethical relations with each other, no matter what races, nationalities or classes are involved. This is the spirit of the playgrounds."

While the South Side recreation centers have all been located in neighborhoods which greatly needed their service, those established on the West and North sides have been placed in some of the most crowded districts of Chicago. For instance, one of the West Side recreation centers, eight acres in area, occupies two city blocks on which formerly 165 houses were crowded on 100 building lots.

The significance of the recreation centers is difficult to overestimate. They show most vividly the rapidity with which social progress can move. A decade ago, when Mr. George A. Parker, of Hartford, Conn., made an investigation of the lack of parks in industrial communities and described in his report his ideal of the socialized park, the description seemed almost Utopian. Yet in less than a decade it became a prophecy fulfilled in Chicago in a finer way than even he dared dream. The development of to-day, with its millions invested in recreation centers and playgrounds which cost annually about \$500,000 to maintain, is little short of marvelous when one remembers the struggle required to secure the first appropriation of \$1000 from public funds eleven years ago.

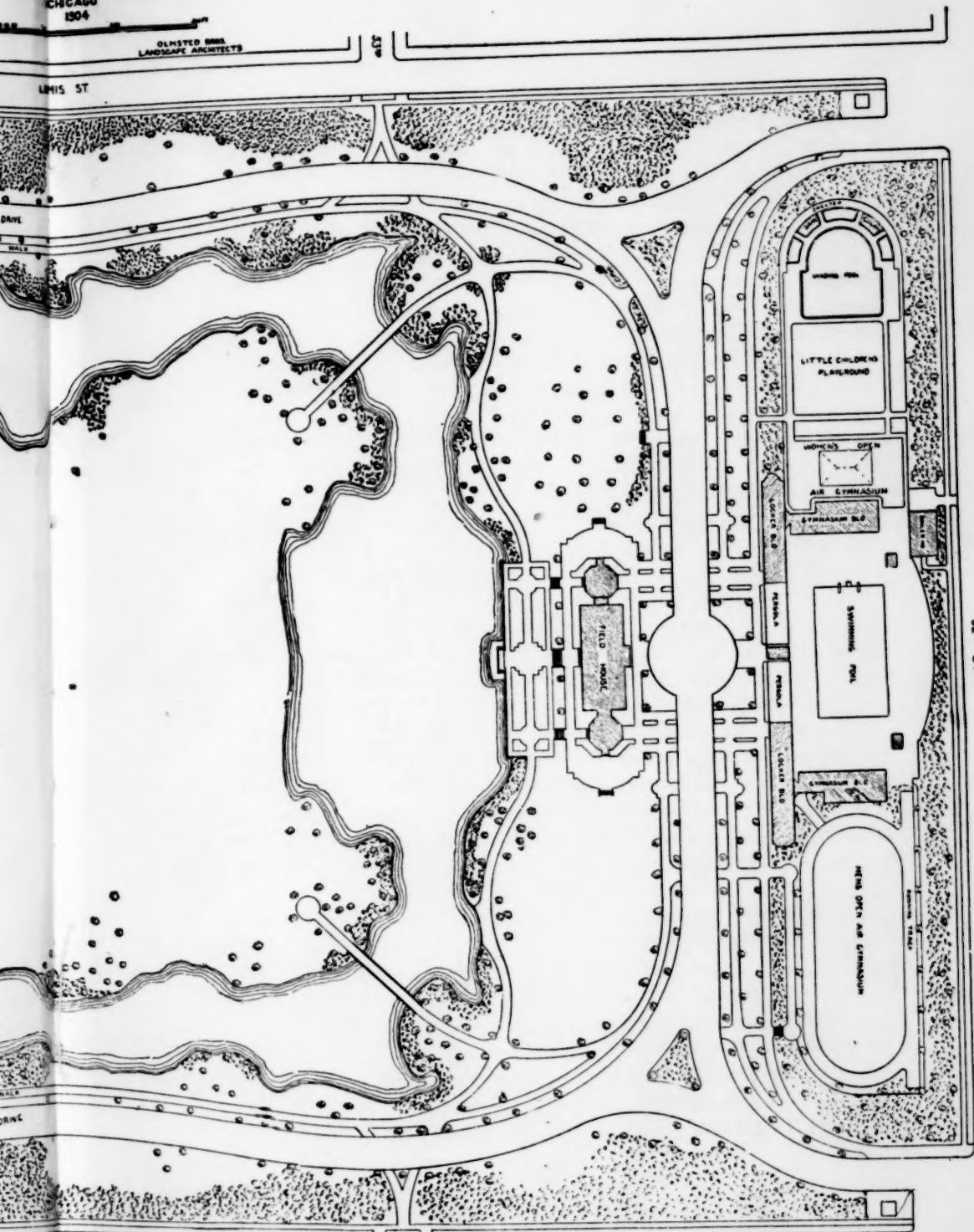
The inception of Chicago's recreation enterprise has some aspects of peculiar significance. The South Park Commission, which



SOUTHWARK COMMISSIONERS
SHEMAN PARK
 CHICAGO
 1904

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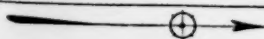
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took the lead, had as president Mr. Henry G. Foreman, and as superintendent, Mr. J. Frank Foster, who still serve in these capacities. To their vision and practical foresight are due the recreation center scheme, in the working out of which the Olmsted Brothers and Mr. Daniel H. Burnham contributed the landscape and architectural effects. From the sociological point of view, however, especial significance attaches to the fact that Mr. Foreman held not only the presidency of the South Park Commission, but also the presidency of the Board of Cook County Commissioners. Under his authority in the latter capacity were the county hospital, jail, poor infirmary and hospital for the insane. His observation of the human wreckage which floats into these corrective and curative institutions led him to consider what could be accomplished through the parks to catch the tide at its source. The planning out of the recreation centers shows plainly the mark of this thought and of intimate observation of the needs of dwellers where city and industrial conditions bear down the hardest.

For some of the social and recreative lines the work of the social settlements undoubtedly afforded in some degree a prototype. If the social settlements contributed anything to the development of this more democratic provision of neighborhood centers, they may in that degree glory in the success of losing part of their life to find it again in the socialized park. The social settlement spirit could scarcely be expressed more finely than by the service which a group of cultivated people might render if they should naturally take up their residence near one of these recreation centers and join with their neighbors in making it count most effectively for better community life. However democratic may be the spirit of a settlement, the fact remains that its facilities are provided by one part of the community for another.

The recreation center belongs to all the people. This was emphasized by President Foreman upon the dedicatory occasions, when he repeatedly declared that every one pays taxes, even if by the humble way of rent and grocery bills. An address by President B. A. Eckhart, of the West Park Commission, at the dedication of its Park No. 1, also indicates the fine spirit with which these recreation centers were conceived. He said, "In these playgrounds and in their work lie the beginnings of social redemption of the people in large cities. They furnish the spectacle of a 'city saving

itself,' of the people of a great city finding nature and God by finding their neighbors and themselves."

In the space of this article it is possible to discuss only fragmentarily the significance of the service rendered by the recreation centers. Their provision of play opportunity for children requires no words of argument; this need throughout the country is now well recognized. The essential fact in Chicago's system is that it affords a continuity of facilities beyond those which appeal only to children. The individual's recreative need is at no age left in the lurch. It is significant that in our juvenile courts a large proportion of the delinquents received are between the ages of 14 and 16, the very period when the small playground begins to lose its grip and appeal. How efficiently the recreation centers are dealing with this problem of delinquency is shown by the results of an investigation financed by the Russell Sage Foundation and conducted by the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy.⁴ In neighborhoods where recreation centers were established the cases of delinquency in the Chicago Juvenile Court decreased on the average 28 per cent.

The harshness with which modern city and industrial conditions repress youth, and the consequences of this, have been discussed with rare understanding and insight by Miss Jane Addams in her recent book, *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*. The recreation centers may not go far in the solution of this broad problem, but they at least afford some provision for tiding over the critical period just after childhood. This is the age when boys and girls begin to have money of their own to spend on amusements. A glance at our smaller as well as larger cities will show the extent to which all sorts of cheap shows, dance halls and amusement places are being provided by those whose sole interest is commercial. That the facilities of the recreation centers serve in some degree as substitutes may be gathered from what has already been told in this article. One part of their service needs a little more explanation—the social halls.

If the street and alley and tiny backyard are inadequate for the play of the children, the small tenements with their clutter and wash-tubs and cooking odors are quite as inadequate for the social gatherings of young people and adults. The halls at low rental in the

⁴See "Charities and The Commons" (now "The Survey") for October 3, 1908.

crowded parts of a large city are almost invariably in connection with saloons. It is of the greatest significance, therefore, that the Chicago recreation centers provide halls for the free use of the people. If Mary Sullivan, or the South End Pleasure Club, or any neighborhood group or organization wishes to give an entertainment or dance, a beautiful hall is available with no charge for rent, heat, light, janitor service or the use of the piano. In some of them a most pleasing touch is added by the continuous provision of palms and other plants. So popular are these halls that application for an evening's use must be made well in advance. In them are held dances, stereopticon lectures, entertainments, concerts, banquets, wedding receptions, neighborhood improvement meetings, rehearsals of local dramatic and musical clubs, and many other gatherings except political and sectarian religious meetings. A beautiful loan collection of paintings from the Art Institute was exhibited for a week in each hall. And a recent development is a series of Sunday evening concerts arranged by the Women's Trade Union League. The music is of a high class and is often preceded by brief explanatory talks.

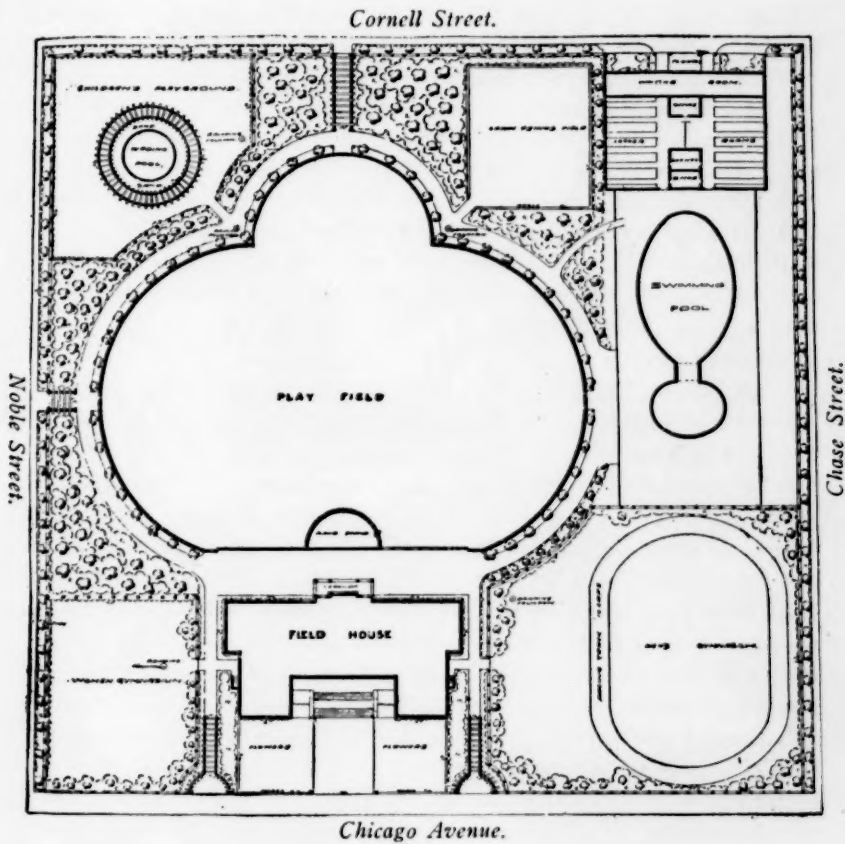
The effect of the recreation centers in the assimilation of immigrants is no small part of their value to Chicago. They show a kindlier aspect of government than that which has often been most apparent to the immigrant. Through play and social recreation acquaintance among the people of various nationalities may be most easily encouraged. One basketball team was composed of an Italian, a Russian Jew, a Frenchman, a Swede and an Irishman. To develop team play in such a group is symbolical of a neighborly and co-operative spirit which the recreation centers may do much to promote.

About the same time that the recreation center movement started Chicago began to feel the need of an outer parkway. The movement crystallized in 1903 when the Cook County Commissioners adopted a resolution establishing an Outer Belt Park Commission, composed of representatives of all the park commissions and of the city and county authorities. Still more definite shape was given the scheme in 1904, when the Metropolitan Park Report, prepared by Mr. Dwight H. Perkins, of the Special Park Commission, suggested certain areas totaling 37,000 acres. The regions include land on both sides of the north branch of the Chicago River, the Desplaines river valley, the Skokee marches north of the city, a large tract of

PARK NO. 1.

WEST CHICAGO PARK COMMISSIONER'S OFFICE.

Scale 1.48" to 1'.



hilly wooded ground southwest of the city, and some land around the edges of Lake Calumet. Altogether, the proposed areas form a continuous belt around the city.

The plan was advanced with all the assurance gained from the precedent of Boston's great outer parkway achievement, and the conservative estimate of traction engineers that by 1950 Chicago's population would be in the neighborhood of 10,000,000.

In November, 1905, a referendum vote was held on the outer park proposition. Although the result was 86,768 affirmative votes to 59,028 negative, it was found that under the law the proposition must receive a majority of all votes cast at the election. It therefore, failed by a few thousand votes. Another law has been passed under which a majority of the votes on the question itself will be sufficient. As the result of conferences recently held it is expected that the outer parkway scheme will again be submitted to the voters at the election in November, 1910.

An indication of the recreative use of these beautiful regions near Chicago is afforded by the success of a series of Saturday afternoon walks, organized in 1908, by a group of out-of-doors enthusiasts. The "hikers' club," as it is colloquially called, includes 1,500 people—many of whom are engaged in downtown office work—who have gone upon one or more walks. In the spring and fall the "hikers" number about 140 on an average walk; in winter as many as fifty. The organization consists of a self-appointed committee. Commutation tickets are used to keep the expense low, and the crowd starts off on an early afternoon suburban train, walks from four to eight miles, usually in regions proposed for the outer parkway, and returns on a late afternoon train. A charge slightly in excess of the transportation is made to pay for the circulars announcing the details of each series of walks.

The outer parkway is, of course, one of the features of the elaborate city plan for Chicago, prepared by Mr. Daniel H. Burnham, under the auspices of the Commercial Club, and now being considered by an official commission appointed by the mayor. The Burnham plan, however, suggests for outer parkway purposes more than double the area proposed in the original scheme. The plan also gives prominent place to another park development which should be mentioned among the achievements of recent years—the enlargement and improvement of Grant Park on the lake front adjoining the business

sections. It is suggested as the center for a group of three buildings devoted to science, art and literature.

Playgrounds, recreation centers and larger parks are, after all, but vehicles for the better expression of the people's recreative spirit. To promote this, and give some glimpse of its many forms in physical activity and of its meaning for a city, a great play festival is annually held by the Playground Association of Chicago, a voluntary organization of people interested in extending the playgrounds and recreation centers, in promoting their efficiency and in stimulating the play and recreative spirit. So successful have these occasions been that many small neighborhood play festivals are now held each year in the playgrounds and recreation centers.

The large festival in 1909 brought together no less than 3,100 participants and three crowds of onlookers for the morning, afternoon and evening sessions, aggregating a day's attendance of over 30,000, including many visitors from other cities.⁵ All ages and nationalities are represented among the participants. Games of childhood, activities of the playgrounds and schools, athletics, and a great variety of peasant games and national and folk dances are shown. The latter are performed in many cases by people from the immigrant population of Chicago, some of whom have so recently arrived that they speak no English. A great variety of peasant costumes adds picturesqueness to the scene, which is usually in an open meadow of a larger park. The spirit which the Playground Association has sought to foster among all who participate is one of co-operation through each nationality and period of life, from childhood to maturity, contributing what it can to the richness of American play. The day is prophetic of the social spirit that will one day permeate the commingled nationalities and classes, which, in the modern industrial city, now crowd and jostle each other. We have only begun to appreciate what provision for public recreation may contribute to the greater happiness of our community life.

⁵For descriptive articles, illustrated, on the Chicago Play Festivals, see "The Survey," November 6, 1909, "Charities and The Commons," August 1, 1908, and August 3, 1907.

***THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF
PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS***

PLAY AND SOCIAL PROGRESS¹

BY HOWARD S. BRAUCHER,
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No person can work in an associated charities long without witnessing tragedy. No artist can paint pictures quite like those indelibly impressed upon the memory of a social worker:

A self-supporting father and mother, both under thirty-five, out of work, yet afterwards proving their willingness to labor; three little children; two rooms up one flight; family without food for three days because they were too proud to beg.

Four children under thirteen found in zero weather going to school without overcoats, mittens, or even underclothing; blue with cold, yet cheerily replying, "We are used to it."

A refined family of five, the man a clergyman's son, dejectedly reading a notice of eviction from their home, and not knowing where they were to spend the night.

A woman suffering great physical pain for three years for want of an operation because she kept putting off visiting the doctor until there should be money to pay. "The children needed so many things," she said. Because the industrial depression forced her to receive aid, she was in mental distress, but at this time was willing to be treated by a physician, and happy when once again she was free from the needless physical pain.

Hunger, cold, loss of shelter, and needless pain—surely these are tragedies. Yet the climax of tragedy is not reached until one has unveiled another picture—that of a dwarfed, starved, unresponsive, joyless life. The other pictures have dealt with externals; this one deals with the spirit itself. Here is tragedy. The body is found living after the spirit is dead. Lack of food, fuel, even the lack of a home, is no such tragedy as the lack of *life*. Death by accident is for the moment terrible, but not nearly as tragic as the gradual death of the spirit while the breath still remains in the body—to see an individual or a family going through the forms of

¹An address delivered at the Maine Conference of Charities and Corrections, held at Bangor, Me., October 18, 1909.

living after the hours have ceased to bring pleasure! When the play spirit has been lost and the future is only one long-drawn-out work, work, work, which taxes the body but does not engage the soul, then tragedy has reached its climax.

Who is Responsible?—"For twenty years I have worked at the same task in the shop," said a spiritless man in Portland, Maine, as he reported his ineffectual efforts to procure work. In the morning he had gone to his labor and bent his back to the day's toil. At night he had returned tired to his home. He retired early, and the next morning awakened to repeat the monotony of the day previous. For him there had been no dissipation, no religious ecstasy, only working, eating, sleeping—working, eating, sleeping. By making himself a piece of machinery he had made it impossible for him to preserve the elasticity which accompanies *life*. As a piece of machinery he began to show signs of wear. He was replaced. He had hardened in the mold into which he had allowed himself to be placed. He could not then change himself, except by a miracle, and this he was not able to perform. "What has been your recreation?" he was asked. "My \$10 a week was needed for my family," was the reply. Who sinned—this man or society, or both—that his spirit became blind, that his play spirit died, that he was not kept fresh, strong, resourceful by recreation of the right sort? Recreation need not be a matter entirely, or largely, of dollars and cents. The play spirit kept strong throughout life, however, presupposes that the child has been taught resourcefulness in play, has learned how to turn his leisure time into advantage and power.

Living, Yet Dead.—Youthful philanthropists of all ages have lectured on the improvidence of the poor, and have told interesting stories of clothing, given for warmth, pawned for the price of a theater ticket; of whole families going to the circus when there was no bread for supper. One who knew what was in the hearts of men and understood their need spoke wisely when He said: "Man does not live by bread alone." It is far more pathetic to find families whose only yearning is for bread than it is to find families where bread money is paid for theater tickets. When the yearning for pleasure has disappeared the spirit is dead, life has fled. While there is life, however, while excitement is more highly prized even than food, there is hope. It may be that hopelessness is better than

vice, but it is easier for the social worker to deal with the "love of pleasure gone wrong" than with deadness.

The lowest inferno is reached when the mother, who should be the inspiration of her children, by her daily routine of drudgery in caring for her thirteen children, toiling for them early and late, has so sapped her own energy that all her labor gives them nothing but a physical return, and they see her only as a machine, a thing like the rest of the furniture of the home, with a few added attributes, such as motion. No Sundays, no holidays, no days off, no rest hours—until finally she realizes she is dead, that her children and her husband have grown apart from her; unless they, too, are dead. Amid her gloom, in a moment of vision, she speaks to the social worker, who is trying to find a way of lightening her task and brightening her life: "You must not expect much of the likes of me—the life is all squeezed out." No earthquake, no railroad accident, no sudden catastrophe, involves such depths of tragedy as the slow paralysis of a human spirit, as gradually the unused parts of the spirit atrophy and die, until only the bare shell which is called the body is left. It is especially tragic when the person is conscious that the life is dying, and yet seems unable to prevent it.

It is said that a certain insect fastens itself upon the apple tree and draws its nourishment from the sap. When it has fastened itself upon the tree and has ceased to move about, part after part drops off from disuse until the insect has lost all power except that of reproduction and of drawing its food from the tree. It thus comes merely to exist. Whether or not this be a true description of the insect, it is a true picture of some men and women and represents one of the greatest tragedies known—existence which seems to have become purposeless.

The Tragedy of Childhood.—We know the longings of the poor boy for a good time. Men who have known in their childhood the depths of poverty and the cruelty of child labor tell us that it was comparatively easy to live on scanty food, that it was no hardship to go without an overcoat on winter days, because they were too proud to wear the old one, threadbare and with short sleeves. The hardship lay in the fact that they had to work while other boys of their age were at play. To miss the childhood games is far worse than to go hungry and cold. It is wrong for society to allow children to bear burdens beyond their years and

strength, but the bitter cruelty of child labor lies not in the burden-bearing; the great hardship is in what is missed. As the vegetation of one age is stored in the earth to furnish fuel for another age, so the child's laughter later appears in the strength of manhood. There are few things that the child laborer finds so hard to understand as why he must work while his friends are at play. Neither can we explain to such a child why we have deprived him of his play, for there is no reason we may honestly give. We know the feelings of the boy who is deprived of his inalienable right to play because of poverty. We know, however, afterwards through life he is to a certain extent one-sided. It would be interesting if we could also know the feelings of boys who, because of the wealth of their parents, have been deprived of the opportunity for normal play. Are they also conscious of a one-sidedness in after life?

The Lack of the Play Spirit is Not a Problem Confined to a Single Class.—At the present time many self-supporting laboring men have never enjoyed a vacation of more than two or three days. Some men are not only ready, but glad, to work twelve hours a day, seven days in the week, fifty-two weeks in the year, year after year. Should holidays be given them, they would know no other way of spending them than in dissipation. They do not even recognize their own need for time to play. Treadmill, mechanical existence is not confined to the "submerged tenth" or the "other half" of our population. There are industrial leaders who boast they have never taken a vacation and who make existence one round of work, who have also lost the play spirit. The man highest up may be making as much of a machine of himself as the day laborer. Each may be going round and round the treadmill in the cage each has built for himself, or has allowed others to build for him. Even the social worker may lose the spirit of play. Such a loss may not lessen the volume of work done, but it materially reduces its value. The present financial and industrial losses due to under-play and consequent loss of power on the part of business leaders, for one year alone, would reach a startling amount.

Few lives, even among the dependent, are as dead as the picture of tragedy which has been drawn; the condition described is admittedly exceptional. Yet the lack of vividness, responsiveness and joy portrayed is in varying degrees to be observed in all walks of life, in our cities and in the open country. Few people are obtaining the

maximum amount of joy, efficiency and power from their lives. The presence of the play spirit means adaptability, capacity for quickly appreciating the influences about them, keen enjoyment of the game, whatever it be, which is being played, and a consciousness that there are other players besides themselves.

Complete Life.—The intensive development of life already here is better than a numerical increase in lives lived on a lower plane. Such an increase in numbers might mean in part adding misery to misery. The farmer who grows a larger crop on the acres he already possesses is wiser than the man who buys many acres and obtains but a quarter of the possible yield. The contractor who builds the five-story building does better than the one who builds the first story of five buildings and leaves each incomplete. Philosophers have now agreed that play is as much a part of life as work—that each day, if complete in itself, is made up of work, play and rest; that life without play is incomplete; that play is not a preparation for more work, but is itself life. In any community where one group works all the time and another group not at all, both groups are leading incomplete lives. It is not meant that some should work and others should play, but that all should both work and play. When it is recognized that life without play is partial, it at once becomes clear that work hours must be so arranged that all shall have time to play. The laborer who is content to work twelve hours each day, the industrial leader who prides himself on not having taken a day off for ten years, have both been educated for work, not for life.

Our educators are now seeing clearly that the teacher who does not know what it is possible to learn about play as well as about work is only half qualified to train her children for life. Gradually a large number of normal schools and colleges have introduced courses in play; and a committee of educators has prepared a normal course in play.

The lack of resourcefulness for the use of leisure time is responsible for much immorality. Probation workers assure us that the playground has a large service to perform in training the next generation of young people to realize the real pleasure which may be obtained from one hour's leisure. The play habit must be formed, the play spirit developed, before the character becomes set. Thus, the playground is of value not only in affording the child

a place to live as a child, but also in preparing the child to continue to live throughout manhood.

Society has recognized that more outdoor life must be given our children if our men and women are to be physically strong. This outdoor opportunity must be given through joyous, spontaneous play. If the child's energy be not given an outlet in play in the right direction, we have learned that we must multiply probation officers and juvenile courts; but when playgrounds are established, experience has demonstrated that there is a decrease in the amount of juvenile crime. Those fallen below the poverty line, if they are to rise above it, must have sufficiently powerful incentives in the effort to draw them up. Joy and pleasure have greater power than fear and pain. Recreation gives balance, poise, physical faith, adaptability, the capacity for entering upon new tasks, and thus is a powerful factor in social progress in this field. Social workers are recognizing that they cannot fully solve the problem of poverty in any district except as they give attention to the problem of recreation.

Play and Industry.—Industry also realizes that it must face the recreation problem. The social spirit of the nation is crying out for better pay for the least well-paid workers. The leaders of industry are asking, "How can wages be increased under present industrial competition?" Many workers at present are not worth the meager wages they receive. They must be made efficient. One thing is certain—that if by providing wholesome recreation for our people, greater incentive to live can be given, men will seek to be more efficient and to share more largely in this more wholesome and happier life. Such men will render more efficient service, increase the industrial output and enable their employers to pay increased wages. Men and women must be trained to be efficient enough to earn in fewer hours all that is needed, that the working day may be shorter, the play hours longer and the pay adequate for a normal standard of living. An efficient worker for seven hours is better than a listless employee for ten. Whatever vitalizes and quickens life increases the earning capacity and brings industrial prosperity to all. Society as a whole is only beginning to appreciate the increase in industrial efficiency which will come when the industrial value of play is recognized. Joyous life will give

power; and men conscious of this power will earn and receive a living wage.

The Play Movement.—The part which play is to have in social progress is being recognized as never before, although the playground movement is yet in its infancy. The number of cities maintaining playgrounds has grown from 90 in 1907 to 177 in 1908, and 336 in 1909. One hundred and fifty-four cities are now conducting campaigns to secure playgrounds. Two hundred and sixty-seven cities alone maintain 1,535 playgrounds, 55 cities have playground associations, and in 15 the mayors have appointed special playground commissions. About 49 per cent. of the cities maintaining playgrounds provide the money wholly or in part by public taxation. About one-half of the cities maintaining playgrounds have not reported the amount expended during the year. The amount spent by those which reported was \$1,353,114. Chicago expended \$500,000; New York, \$123,000. East Orange, with a population of only 31,506, provided \$7,500 for the play of her children.

In a number of inaugural addresses recently delivered by mayors the play problem received as much attention as the public schools. The National Women's Trade Union League, at its last convention, passed resolutions urging local chapters to work for playgrounds. The National Federation of Labor has appointed official delegates to attend the next playground congress. The International Congress of Tuberculosis, which met in Washington in 1908, passed resolutions favoring the establishment of playgrounds as an important agency in the prevention of tuberculosis. Women's clubs, associated charities, Young Men's Christian Associations, civic clubs, chambers of commerce, even taxpayers' protective associations, are active in promoting playgrounds. Public-spirited men and women in Cincinnati, Ohio; Springfield, Mass.; Sag Harbor, N. Y., and many other cities have donated playgrounds to their native places. The people in Pittsburgh, by a referendum vote, have recently authorized a \$700,000 bond issue to provide play facilities. Several cities have this year doubled the number of hours their playgrounds are open, thus obtaining twice the value from their plants. Some outdoor grounds have been equipped with electric lights, so that the young people who work may play after the day's toil is over. Play centers in a number of cities are kept open throughout the year, winters as well as summers.

Seventy-seven per cent of the cities maintaining playgrounds report that the number of their play leaders is 3,756. Cities now feel that the one essential for a playground is a play leader. Actual experiences in cities like Pawtucket, Toledo and Duluth have clearly demonstrated this fact. Without such a leader, a playground having most costly equipment may be a positive menace to the neighborhood. With the right leader, the smallest space may be made a children's paradise.

From the consideration of play for children the cities have passed to public recreation for families. The school buildings are no longer to remain idle the greater part of the time, but are more and more to be used as the social centers for entire families. The city playground has been adapted to meet the needs of the rural school. Country districts are now attempting to secure social centers, and are utilizing the school or the church, or both. The great need at the present time is that each community working out its problem shall do so in the light of all experiments which other cities have tried, with the benefit of the advice of those who have had opportunity to study the problem. In order that there might be a clearing house for play information and that social progress through the development of play might be as rapid as possible, citizens from all parts of the United States have united in forming the Playground Association of America.

Our cities have recognized that social progress presupposes an education of the people that shall quicken and vitalize their life. Though the average length of life is being increased, it avails little unless the average life is being deepened and enriched. A year is often lived in an hour; and a thousand years of social progress may be made in a single decade. It is being recognized that the hours of vivid life can be most easily increased by arranging that the leisure hours, when restraint is removed and self-expression is easy, shall give joyful contact with other persons under normal, wholesome influences. In so far as the spirit of play reigns, imagination keeps the life healthy, and each unconsciously puts himself in the other man's place, the "man with the hoe" and the man "highest up" try to understand each other's difficulties, and no task of social adjustment is then too great. Whatever is done in any country to foster the play spirit shortens the time which must elapse before poverty and dependency shall be practically ended, and raises all

life to a higher plane. The Golden Age in Grecian history was possible because there was leisure for play. The modern Golden Age is being ushered in when there shall also be opportunity for play; this time in a democracy where there shall be no slaves, but where all shall have an equal right to play. Except as a people gain and retain the play spirit which is natural to little children, they do not enter into the possibilities of social progress.

PUBLIC PROVISION AND RESPONSIBILITY FOR PLAY- GROUNDS

BY HENRY S. CURTIS,
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The play movement, like other social and educational movements that have come under public control, began as a private philanthropy. Five years ago, probably nine-tenths of all the playgrounds in this country were being carried on in this way; to-day a half or more are under some city department. There can be no question of the tendency all over the country, it is strongly toward public support and public control. Where this movement is to lead us the future must decide, but the indications are that the present developments are only the beginnings of a movement of nearly universal extent and very profound significance.

Before one can discuss intelligently the question of play and the responsibility of the public to furnish it, it becomes necessary to consider the nature and function of play in the life of the child, and the kind of responsibility that the government, in its larger or smaller units, owes to its constituents.

To the childlike man of Plato and Carlyle, who has not lost in the commonplace relations of everyday the ability to wonder at the really marvelous, there are few things more mysterious than play. For all this intensity of effort that leaves him breathless and exhausted, the child is no richer or wiser, no better clothed or fed; he has apparently gained nothing. Whence this abounding energy, not displayed in other things? Whence this richness of emotional content and joy without any apparent advantage? Play is the beauty of childhood and tints with its auroral hues the dawn to which we all look back at times with longing. In the bitter struggle of the ages in which every vestige of the useless was shorn away by the ruthless shears of selection, how is it that this inner spirit of poetry and joyousness has survived? For play, in fact, seems to be the expression of life itself, springing forth spontaneously everywhere as its first activity. We work because we must; we play be-

cause it is our nature. I know of no better basis for a theory of optimism than this.

There have been a series of explanations of play offered. Schiller and Spencer held that play was "surplus energy." Nerve cells have a natural instability. Built up by all incoming stimuli, they at length reach a point when, like intermittent springs, they must overflow. When the engine stands still at the station, it must blow off steam or blow up the boiler, and this is the state of the boy when work does not use up his nervous energy.

Professor Groos objects to this theory that "surplus energy" only requires that something should be done. It does not require that the animal or child should play. Why does not the boy at such times go out and saw wood? How account for the forms that play assumes in different animals? He says, on the other hand, that "play is an instinct that has served the purpose of education." "The animal does not play because it is young, but rather has a period of infancy in order that it may play." Play appears in the animal series at the point where training is necessary in order that the young may pursue the activities of the adults, and it serves to give this training. He says further, "If the kitten had not practised in springing upon flying leaves and rolling balls, the cat would not be able to capture its prey." Surplus energy is not the cause, but only a favorable condition for play.

If Groos had carried his theory to its natural conclusion, he would have had a very satisfactory theory of play. There is apparently only one way that action may become instinctive, and that is by its being endlessly repeated through unnumbered ages until it is pressed back from the higher conscious levels into the lower subconscious ones and ultimately into the very structure of the nervous mechanism itself. Dr. Hall has probably given us the best statement and explanation of play in "Adolescence." All plays are remnants or survivals of the previous activities of the race. As the savage state was much the longest evolutionary period, so this has furnished in the type of the chase, the fleeing and pursuit, the finding and hiding away, the dodging and catching, the throwing and striking, which constitute the elements of all motor plays. The joy of the original was the joy of capture and escape, the joy of survival when the struggle was very bitter, and famine and violence lay in wait or savagely pursued our ferine ancestor. There

was thus connected with these movements and co-ordinations at the beginning an intense emotional content; to run fast or to hide away meant escape and life, to pursue and capture, to find and strike down with stone or club, meant relief from hunger and survival in the struggle. Hence, an intense pleasure became attached to these movements and co-ordinations at the beginning of things. The dawn of intelligence was the same. The primitive brain was lethargic, not easily stirred to action or judgment. It required the intense stimuli of danger and want to awaken it to quickness of judgment and intelligence of choice. Play has the same characteristics and has always performed the same function for the child. It is well known that the boy can run faster in playing tag than he can in going on an errand, that he will expend in a day's vigorous play far more energy than it is possible for him to develop in work. Certainly no system of education has thus far been devised that has the same value in arousing his intelligence. To play, and play alone, his whole physical, emotional, intellectual and social nature responds, and the child becomes a unit. It makes the same requirements of rapid judgments and instantaneous action then that the chase required of our ancestors. Up to a certain undetermined age play is far more educative than the conventional school, and there is far more reason for its being furnished by the community.

Probably play reached almost its lowest ebb in the history of the world in America during the latter half of the past century. Vigorous motor plays require a considerable space to carry them on. A boy can not play ball without a ball field, swim without a swimming place or climb trees without trees to climb, and these the city has not furnished. He can shoot craps or pitch pennies on the sidewalk, he can play jackstones or tell stories on a doorstep, he can do various things in the alleys and stables, but these are not the types of play by which the race developed or by which "in distant ages children grew to kings and sages."

The world of nature holds out to the child a thousand invitations whose subtle appeal he can scarce resist. The forest calls to him from its shadowy depths and speaks of mysteries hidden within that untraveled country, and of animals and birds' nests; the brook offers its minnows to catch and its waters that he may wade and bathe in; the tree lures the ape in him to its ancestral home. Every

animal is a new person to be loved and talked to and played with, and a dog is often as good as a whole gymnasium in the physical exercise he can promote. The city world of brick and stone, of asphalt streets and rushing cars has no such appeal. The brain was not evolved through reactions to these stimuli, and it is not until later that their charm is felt.

Play for any high development always requires good *camaraderie* and leadership. The American city, which has mixed up Jews and Greeks and Italians and Slavs in a single community, has worked strongly against the development of that sense of trust and affection which is essential to highly organized and frequent play. There has been no community feeling, and any high degree of social leadership among children has been impossible.

These city communities, if such an aggregation of heterogeneous elements without community feeling can be so called, have had no common life and little if any sentiment in regard to play. Play has not been encouraged. Whereas, in ages past, mothers have always taught games to the little children, the crowded tenement and street have furnished no place for this, and the crowded program has left no time. The games of older children have always been handed on from one generation of children to the next by social tradition, but mixed races have no common traditions and games have not been transmitted.

I have been at the opening of many new playgrounds. The experience is the same everywhere, the children do not play much, but stand or rush about and talk or wrangle. On investigation, it will be found that, unless they have been taught them at the school, they know very few games, and these are usually not of the best type, but have often taken on vulgar expressions or a rudeness of manner from the street environment in which they have flourished.

I believe that all who have been closely associated with the playground movement are convinced that if we are to have a high type of really educative play, of sufficient quantity to give health and physical strength, and a quickening of the intelligence and the development of social habits, that the public must in some way furnish both the playground and the leadership, without which the playground is often a social menace.

The first attitude of the public mind toward this problem was that providing facilities for play was a new and very proper form

of charity, but was not a fitting use of public money. The discussion in the House of Representatives, which has on two occasions consumed nearly a day of the time of our national lawmakers, has hinged on this point.

There is, of course, little uniformity of opinion as to what sort of thing the state should furnish. Between the socialist, who would furnish everything, and the anarchist, who would furnish nothing, there is every conceivable grade of opinion. The policy of this country is not the same to-day that it was fifty years ago. There is an unquestionable tendency to the extension of the function of government all over the world, and each year sees the taking over of or prescribing regulations for some activity which had previously been regarded as a purely private undertaking, with which the public was not concerned. As the organization of society progresses, and the dependence of each on the welfare of all becomes closer, an increase of social control seems inevitable. As examples of this tendency one need only mention the present public provision of schools, and even colleges and universities, of parks and public baths, and the increasing powers of boards of health, of tenement house and building departments, of bureaus of corporations, etc. The conception of government that it exists "to protect every man in its rights" may not be sufficient to require the furnishing of playgrounds, but we have long outgrown this ideal.

The argument that is usually advanced for furnishing public schools is that the boy becomes a voter, and an illiterate electorate is a danger to the state, so the state must furnish the school for self-protection. This does not seem to give any direct reason for the public education of girls, but the argument applies equally well to the question of providing playgrounds. The fall of countries in the past has not been due so much to the lack of education of the people as it has to their unsocial tendencies and immorality, and the playgrounds have certainly as much to do with the elimination of these traits as the school. In times of war states require soldiers, who must have health and physical stamina, and these the playground can furnish more effectively than the school. For a government to be safe the people must be contented and happy, the seeds of anarchy must not be sown by general unrest. Perhaps the social opportunities of the neighborhood center or field-house, through the development of a spirit of friendliness and sociability,

can do as much as anything to bring back joy to life and quiet the restlessness.

I suppose, however, it is no longer necessary to limit the argument for furnishing playgrounds by the state to the consideration that the playground furnishes a fundamental form of education. The majority of cultured people would be ready to say at present that those things that are necessary for the general weifare and for use in common, where from the nature of the case they can not be furnished by the individual, should be furnished by the state. Especially is this true where the loss of these facilities would mean a serious retardation or checking of development and where, at best, they can be furnished more cheaply and efficiently by the state than by the individual.

Play offers just these conditions. Out of his play-life the child develops his health, his muscles, his emotions, his will, his quickness of judgment, and executive tendency and the intellect is stimulated into action as in no other way. Through all the ages, from the animal world up, play has been the fundamental form of education. The school has been only an accessory form at best. There have been great men who have never been to school, but the very nature of the child who is kept without play atrophies. Witness the appalling results of child labor in England in the eighteenth century, and the common observation in regard to playless children. From the nature of the case an individual parent or child can not furnish a playground in the city, because it is too expensive, and the very idea of a playground requires that there shall be many children who shall use it in common.

The playgrounds might be furnished like private schools and a small fee might be charged each child. I have no doubt that there is a real need for playgrounds of this sort, greater in fact than for private schools themselves. Play is far more democratic than any other form of activity and if parents wish their children to be aristocrats, it is more necessary that they have a private playground than that they have a private school. But this can not provide for the poor children any more than the private school can.

There seem to be only four possibilities in the situation: play facilities may not be provided at all, they may be provided by the state or individuals for a charge, they may be provided by the

state free, or they may be provided by charity. Play does not seem to be a fit object for charitable support, because it is not for any special class of children, but for all children. It requires, for the purchase of sites, construction of swimming pools and other facilities; an expense such as charity can not possibly bear, unless we are to have a very different sort of charity than the world thus far has known.

Since the children need the playgrounds, and they can not afford to pay a fee, and the expense is too great and not of a legitimate kind for charity, the only way left seems to be that they should be furnished free by the public. We need not be surprised, therefore, to note that practically all the large cities and many of the smaller ones, where the movement is well established, have now taken up the movement as a municipal undertaking, and are paying the expenses from public funds, while the cities where the playgrounds are maintained by private charity are the new cities that are just making a beginning.

Few movements have grown more rapidly than the playground movement. There were in the United States in the summer of 1907 ninety cities that were maintaining playgrounds. In the summer of 1908 there were one hundred and eighty-five. While during the past summer, from very imperfect statistics, we find record of three hundred and thirty-five cities—a movement growing so fast that, unless checked, it must soon become universal.

There has been a notable tendency during the past two years for the states to take up the movement and make some requirement or provision. The best known of the playground laws is the one passed by the state of Massachusetts in the spring of 1908. This law required every city of ten thousand or more population to vote whether or not it would maintain playgrounds. According to the latest statistics I have seen, forty-two cities have voted, and forty have voted "yes" with a majority of about five to one. The states of New Jersey, Ohio, Indiana and Minnesota have also passed laws within the last two years.

When the cities began to take up the play movement in earnest about ten years ago, the playgrounds were mostly located in school-yards. These yards were very small and the surface was unsuitable. The equipment usually consisted of a sandbox, four or five swings and a seesaw or two. They were usually maintained for a

half-day only during four or five weeks of the summer. To-day most of our municipal playgrounds are maintained for the entire year, and the school playgrounds for four or five months. The equipment has been successively increased by the addition of outdoor gymnasias, wading pools, swimming pools and field-houses, and the hours have been further increased by lighting them at night. Instead of the four or five hundred dollars that the cities were spending on a year's work, the city of Chicago alone is now spending more than five hundred thousand dollars per annum, and its plant represents an outlay, during the last six years, of more than eleven millions of dollars. Instead of the janitor or volunteer who were the first attendants at the playgrounds, a dozen colleges and universities are now giving courses of training for playground workers, and each of the park playgrounds of South Chicago has about twenty paid employees. The field-houses, costing from seventy to one hundred and twenty-five thousand dollars each, are beautiful in architecture, in finish, and their bright color effects. They provide two gymnasias each for indoor work, two small indoor and one large outdoor swimming pool, a branch library, a small restaurant, from two to four clubrooms and a large and beautiful auditorium. There is in charge of this public Young Men's Christian Association building, for the resemblance is close, a field-house director, who corresponds to a Young Men's Christian Association secretary, a superintendent or manager of the building, a physical director and an assistant for men, a physical director and an assistant for women. Their work is indoors from the 1st of November to the 1st of May, and outdoors from the 1st of May to the 1st of November. Besides these, there are many other employees as janitors, life-savers in the pools and the like. Evidently Chicago has gone on from the idea of furnishing play to the children to the idea of furnishing recreation to the people.

From the description it might be supposed that Chicago at least was furnishing adequate play facilities. This is far from being the case. We do not know very well what adequate facilities for play are, but we certainly know that they must be within walking distance of the children if they are to be attended. The effective range of a playground is different for children of different ages and sexes, for different cities and for different sections of the same city. It is even different for different playgrounds, and serves as a

pretty accurate measure of its attractiveness. It is also different for different facilities, a boy will not go as far to swing or attend a gymnasium class as he will to swim in the summer time. From the best statistics that we have been able to gather, the little children below six will not come regularly to a playground that is more than two blocks away, the children under nine or ten will not come over a quarter of a mile, and even the older children will not come regularly over a half-mile. These distances have been determined by the registration of the children attending the different playgrounds, but they are conditioned by the crowded state of the streets, the presence of street car or railroad tracks, and various factors that introduce an element of danger.

If we take the longest range of effectiveness in the playgrounds, this would mean for districts, where all the conditions are favorable, that a playground must be placed in the center of every square mile of the city's area, and with greater frequency in sections where the streets are crowded or there are elements of danger. This would require over two hundred playgrounds in place of the thirty-one that Chicago now has, in order to accommodate the older children alone, without attempting to make provision for the younger ones. For the smallest children even the crossing of the street unattended is dangerous in some sections and is not desirable in any section. The only safe and adequate provision that can be made for them is in the center of the block or on the roof. Berlin requires such play space in the center of tenement blocks, where it is under the park department. Many of the new model tenements in this country are making provision for the play of the children both on the roof and in the interior court.

Besides these, in order to provide for the middle-sized children, who have a range of about a quarter of a mile, there is need of many small playgrounds, some of which may be schoolyards.

The most needy children of all are the children in institutions of various kinds. They are there all the time, are very deficient in things to do, lack initiative, crave the society of adults and in general furnish the ideal conditions for the playground to do its best work. We have thus far scarcely done anything for them.

We must consider then that when it is said that a certain city provides playgrounds, that we mean a very different thing from what we mean when we say it provides schools. There is no city

in this country that is making provision for the play of more than a quarter, if it does for more than a tenth, of its children. The expression simply means that the city has made a beginning.

Thus far I have spoken only of the city problem, but the problem of play in the country is not much less than it is in the city. In some ways it is greater. The children are more scattered and the families are growing smaller and smaller, so that there often are not enough of them within range to have much play. The old life of hunting and fishing and adventure which was the lifeblood of the pioneer boy is gone. The farm-child is often growing up timid and unsociable and boorish from this general absence of common play. The country does not lack for space, but its need of organization and recreation is greater than that of the city.

In Germany they have an official whom we much need to borrow. He is known as a *Spiel Inspektor*, and his business is to organize outdoor sports and recreations over a considerable section of country. He arranges for picnics, athletics and swimming in summer, and for curling, tobogganing and skating in winter.

It does not seem to have yet occurred to the Conservation Association, that one of the great natural resources of any country or district is its recreational facilities. It is needless to mention the millions that Switzerland garners every year from her crop of tourists, or Florida's return from her ocean side and the smell of her orange blossoms, greater than all the products of her soil. Nearly every district has such facilities, quite uninventoried. Their development would often save the locality much money, that now goes to distant resorts, and furnish a needed relief in sections, much underplayed. Recreation is always more wholesome when taken near home, where the person is known and responsible, than it is at a distance, where nobody knows or cares what is done.

If the public is to be really responsible for the play of the children and the recreation of the people, I see no way of meeting this obligation except through an efficient organization to secure it. Since play is a universal need, play should be placed within reach of all. This, I believe, requires a general organization or department corresponding closely to the organization of the school system itself. This would mean at least a department and supervisor of playgrounds for every city, an official, corresponding to the German *Spiel Inspektor* for every county, a state department and superin-

tendent of playgrounds and a national recreation official at Washington. Such organization seems to me not merely desirable, but inevitable, if we are to secure efficiency and really furnish worthy play to the children; to be, in fact, a corollary of the idea of public responsibility. The general ineffectiveness of state laws that have behind them no machinery for their enforcement is a good example of the need.

THE PLAYGROUND AS A SOCIAL CENTER

BY MRS. AMALIE HOFER JEROME,¹
Chicago.

The rallying place has always been a necessity rather than a luxury to human beings of all classes and nationalities. Whether it is the crossroad store or the old halfway house of the frontier, or the courthouse with shaded grove of the old South, or the picturesque piazza around which the remotest medieval mountain village is built, all have served as social clearing centers, furnishing opportunity for one to measure one's self with one's fellows, get new social notions, and better standards of what is acceptable to those "higher up." Since cities are no longer built about a forum, or market-place, or the *Rathaus*, it has become necessary for individuals and groups to use such places as chance leaves available, though inadequate and undesirable. The necessity to rally and the social desire to congregate still hold sway, after the old village landmarks have vanished.

In medieval times the church or the cathedral opened out on the town square, and the places for eating, drinking or buying did likewise, and the town well, with friendly curb, was frequently at the center. "Meet me at the fountain" is a clever appeal of certain advertisers to this time-old and traditional social instinct for a rallying center. Only too often American villages have grown up into towns and become great cities before it was remembered to set apart suitable spaces for the community rallying center. The real estate success has completely swallowed up every last vacant lot. Wide, green prairies have been, and are being, absorbed and transformed into towns and become great cities without any consideration of the get-together nature of the dwellers in those same tenements. In proportion to this oversight, artificial "resorts" spring up, some crude, others vulgar or debasing, each of which gives urgent testimony on behalf of the neglected, violated sociability of human beings. It is this sociability, which the German people call *Gemüth*,

¹One of the founders of the Playground Association of America; also of the Playground Association of Chicago.

that is the very heart of creative and poetic life, and which the English poet describes as the intimation of immortality, which neither neglect, nor perversion, "nor all that is at enmity with joy, can utterly abolish or destroy."

It is now becoming necessary for short-sighted communities to reclaim areas and set them apart for the social needs of the people. The small-park movement of Chicago, which has challenged the admiration of the world as the greatest of civic achievements, has come none too soon. New York City, among other reclamations, recently purchased at the price of \$1,000,000 one wee bit of space, which it might open up to the sky for the children of a certain tenement block. A remarkable awakening has come to our entire country with reference to the need of play spaces and open-air spots in the cities. It has come like a conversion, in answer to the prayers of women's clubs, social settlements, kindergarten associations, and the men and women who are believers in the common good. Sites for playgrounds have been readily acquired through municipal taxation, as gifts from private benefactors and as purchases by playground associations. The Playground Association of America was organized a little over three years ago in the city of Washington, having for its original purpose the plotting of the "city beautiful," with reference to providing adequate playgrounds for the children of our national capital. Three great conventions have been held by this organization, and its bureau and staff of workers are meeting a flood of inquiry, and compiling a steady stream of reports of the growth of the movement throughout the country. In addition to the usual addresses and conferences on play and playground interests such as were to be expected at such a convention, the program has reached its climax in a great public festival of play and sport and games. In Chicago, where the first of these national play festivals was held, the Playground Association conducts an annual all-day festival, which has been witnessed by as many as 30,000 people, and in which organizations of all kinds, including the public schools, playgrounds and Turn Verein have gladly participated. During the past year play festivals have been held in hundreds of cities and schools, over twenty local festivals of great social and play significance having been held in Chicago alone.

In the early stages of propagating the playground idea, the

arguments most frequently heard were those of the health and fresh-air benefits to children in crowded districts, such as the reduction of tubercular tendencies and other evils. While the playground has been found to be the greatest antidote to such human frailties as result from cramped quarters, deoxygenized air and social isolation, it has also been observed that the same social problems, as well as the same social opportunities, exist there as are to be found in any other center where human beings rally.

For some time thoughtful men and women have been saying, it is not enough to furnish the place and tell the children to play. These men and women are now saying there must be leadership in the playground, and leadership of several kinds. At one time it was considered sufficient to have a police guard representing authority. Later, gymnasium directors were added, to control and develop the games, sports and athletics. Still later, an able manager for the entire field was provided, with various assistants, such as musicians, librarians, kindergartners, swimming teachers and story tellers. Only to-day has the greatest opportunity of all come to be recognized, and a social worker is being hired—yes, paid for twelve months in a year by park commissions—to cultivate and harvest those finer fruits of the social nature.

On a recent visit to a playground which assembles many nationalities, including blacks and whites, I was told by the policeman who has been on that beat since the ground opened, that it was all hopeless; that there never would be any good come out of it; that "they fight and pester as much as they did in the beginning." I then turned to the manager of the playground, a young man of considerable understanding, who testified with great enthusiasm that he saw an evolution not only in individuals, but in the actions of the group as a whole, which made it all worth while. The one was only the "cop" to the children of the playground, while the other was a companion and leader in those very activities which surge up only too violently where 400 are gathered together in a 100-foot-square yard. How much more may not be promoted and recognized by an intelligently equipped social worker who makes it a business to develop that great human passion for social organization and social communion. It is a well-known statement among educators that children reveal themselves in their play. The playground leader has the opportunity to see and know not only child

nature, but human nature at its very fountain, and to direct this nature up into the forms most acceptable to society as a whole.

Not long since a bunch of boys of a harum-scarum club entertained their mothers at a dance in a nearby field-house at the suggestion of one who saw the full significance of such a social endeavor. Again, where antagonistic groups of a certain district refused to mingle, a much-looked-up-to person gave a party, inviting as her guests all concerned, and all came, glad to be honored and counted eligible.

The most significant statement made at the great National Play Convention held in Pittsburg last May was as follows: "When the family splits up for its recreation, there is danger. When young people take their places apart by themselves without a wholesome influence of family life, there is danger. Only when the family stays together do we have wholesome conditions. Our social traditions are the most precious elements of civilization and of cultivated life. These great traditions are not carried by the individual, but by the group."

The social leader of the playground or the recreation building will bring the old people back into the game, and will supply forms of folk recreation and invite the participation of those who do not "two-step"; in other words, will warm up the child nature, the play spirit, in the old man and the old woman, and so keep the passing generation in sympathetic accord with the generation which is just unfolding. One of the prettiest stories in playground history is the true story of a certain rich citizen who bequeathed a great tract lying outside the city for a playground. When asked why such a remote place was selected, the answer came: "That is where I rambled and wandered on the old homestead place as a boy, and it ought never to be used for any other purpose."

I have already said that the playground site has been relatively easy to secure. It has not been so easy to interest the authorities in providing trained leaders and socially developed leaders. However, the need is being shown and the demand for trained workers has been recognized to the extent that the National Playground Association has a standing committee and an appropriation of money for organizing a course of study for such training. The tentative report of this committee, a document of nearly 300 pages, has just been issued and extensively circulated.

London has a recreation committee which publishes and makes available full accounts of all the recreation privileges of that city. The New York City Recreation Committee has just issued a pamphlet describing and directing people to the public recreation facilities of the great metropolis. When Chicago builds the proposed great social center on the lake front in Grant Park, another monument will have been erected to this social instinct which lies just back of the entire series of manifestations which children and adults reveal in their recreations, namely, seeking companionship, testing and measuring themselves against each other, enjoying, imitating and emulating—in other words, ripening socially.

EDUCATIONAL VALUE OF PUBLIC RECREATION FACILITIES

BY CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON,
Author of "Modern Civic Art," Rochester, N. Y.

It can be imagined that a normally healthy boy, if he understood at all the title of this paper, would be so frightened by it that he never would venture into the parks. As most men, and this number includes the best men, remain boys at heart, it may be well to offer at once a word of reassurance.

"Public recreation facilities" are indeed to mean, in this connection, the parks. Not that the parks are the only examples; but in this discussion I shall not even include playgrounds, where, in rafia, sewing and gymnastic lessons, there is considerable premeditated educational work, because the playgrounds are designed for a distinctly limited portion of the public, while parks are meant for everybody and the term is broad. Yet, at the very start, it may be admitted that to educate the public is not the prime purpose of parks; that information and instruction are entirely secondary by-products of their output. It is this admission which must comfort the frightened boy.

It is well to have regard for these by-products, if there be remembrance, all the time, that the particular thing which the recreation facilities of a park are intended to do is to re-create. Because to so many citizens, men and women alike, life is a grind, a round of labor and a season of care, it has been found that one especially efficient method of re-creating is simply to entertain. When one is entertained, labor ceases and care is forgotten, the old tired muscles relax, nerves are at rest. Thus public recreation facilities are provided because of the demand for a free and popular antidote to task-driving conditions. To furnish that antidote is their essential purpose. Education is incidental to it. Since, however, it is true, recurring to the manufacturing simile, that common stock dividends may come out of by-products, we shall act

wisely, when making considerable investments in public recreation facilities, to take into account by-product values.

It is important first of all to notice that all conscious action is educational. That means that education is an essential incident. As certainly as we operate our public recreation plant, we are sure to have the by-product. This education is either conscious or unconscious, and some of it may have so little value, or attain value only under such exceptional conditions, that it need not be considered. For example, the tennis and golf that are played in the park give pleasure and health, encourage muscular proficiency and mental alertness, but the knowledge they impart, in counting, measuring distances, judging wind force, etc., etc., is not of a kind that can be considered of much general value. So of the bathing on the public beaches. No doubt one gains knowledge of the sand life, and knows more than one otherwise might of tides and currents; but this knowledge too, save under exceptional conditions, can be left to the educational scrap heap. As to learning to swim and dive and float, knowledge of real value, that is part of the game, and, for all its value, may be classed with the lessons in other sports. With them, also, I put the folk dances.

To be sure, in all these social activities we learn more than we might otherwise of human nature, and that is precious knowledge. But it gains its value only because we are parts of human society, and therefore the special contribution it makes to our equipment for life is properly called social rather than educational. As to lessons in the sports, in a certain park system there are annual gymnastic meets, annual kite-flying contests, and an annual regatta in which miniature yachts sail for prizes, and there are pony races and polo contests and baseball games. Yet, because the sporting man falls so far short of the high popular ideal of an educated gentleman, I waive, in measuring the educational value of parks, all the information that the public incidentally derives from such occasions.

It is clear that the educational by-product of the park that is to be measured here is greatly restricted. It is to be only that which is most strictly educational and most worth cultivating and developing for the dividend it will pay. Such education gleaned from the parks is that which makes for broader public sympathies and wider interests, for finer appreciation of the good things of life; is

that education which opens the public's eyes and ears to the beauty that surrounds them, which makes us less of the animal and more of the man, richer through development of the resources within ourselves. The song of a bird, the scent of a flower, the glory of a sunset sky are parts of our common heritage. The sense impression that they make is dependent only on ability to perceive and faculty to enjoy; and this ability and this faculty are susceptible of education. If the park can cultivate these in large numbers of people, as an incident of its service as a public pleasure ground, it will bestow great benefit; it will vastly increase its usefulness to the community; it will not only heighten the enjoyment of its own attractions, but it will put into hearts and minds a faculty of enjoyment that will be of service in daily life. To such extent, the investment which has been made in the parks will be paying daily dividends on the common stock of human experience.

Not only are these things worth learning, but there is no other place where the power to appreciate and enjoy nature can be taught to the public as well as in the park. Certainly it could not be taught as easily or learned as pleasantly in school. To a considerable extent the instruction will be gained unconsciously. Here is a sunny hillside, where the park commission has had planted a great collection of lilacs. When the shrubs come into bloom, Rochester street cars carry on the front platform a sign stating that the lilacs are in flower, and on Sunday afternoons thousands upon thousands of people visit the hillside and roam among the blossoms, comparing varieties. A little later the rhododendrons, which are in a shaded ravine, become the park's special attraction—as the tulips were first of all, and the hothouse display before there was anything out-of-doors. And as the street cars move through the business streets, carrying for the occasion their incongruously sweet and lovely message, they have almost the effect of fairy princesses, for uncounted men and women, hurrying along the sidewalks, darting across the streets, glancing out of shop or office window, or riding to and from their work, are made, as by magic, richer and happier because of the vision that the sign brings to their minds. They have learned to know the flowers and to enjoy them.

Since many find pleasure in the mere act of learning, deliberate instruction can often be given without impairing a park's recreative value. This educational opportunity should be easily available,

though never thrust upon park visitors. Clear but unobtrusive labels upon trees and shrubs and in the beds of bloom are illustrative of one way of developing a park's educational value. This passive method may be supplemented by the training of employees to answer questions, not civilly only, but with sympathetic understanding, as the attendants of a public library are supposed to lure the inquirer into bypaths of knowledge. From this point of view, indeed, the park is crossed and recrossed by a thousand attractive bypaths that none may see until the scales of ignorance fall from the eyes. Yet the park is the people's, and until they have knowledge of these mysteries they cannot enjoy to the full their own.

As of the flora of the park, so of the fauna. There usually is a zoo in one of the city's pleasure grounds. The labels on the cages correspond to the labels on the trees and shrubs, and in each case something more should be given than merely the name. The natural habitat and some interesting fact should be added, that one may have a less slippery peg than only a name on which to hang his memory. But aside from the specimens in the zoo, there are the birds that build their nests in the park, and squirrels perhaps, and sheep and shepherd dog. I would have easily and pleasantly available to the public information about these matters. An inconspicuous little card, conveniently placed, might bear, for example, the statement that in this vicinity an oriole has its nest. One may know it by—and then would come briefly a description of its appearance and of its peculiar notes. It would be interesting to add the date when the oriole was first observed in the park, the additions to its family, the probable date of its return to a winter home and where that home may be. There can be no question that information such as this would add greatly to the popular interest in the park and hence to the enjoyment of it; and more than that, the park, in opening to the common sympathy and understanding of us all the world of vegetation and of animal life about us, would lead us out of ourselves into that wider interest which is one of the doors of happiness that the key of knowledge alone unlocks. The park, though we realize it not, should be the great outdoor school. It should teach the lesson of wood and stream and field to those whose horizon were otherwise bounded by paved streets.

In addition to the lessons that individual plants may teach us, there is something to be learned from their grouping and arrange-

ment. This is taught more subtly, perhaps should not be forced on a careless public in any consciously given lessons. But for all that it has real educational value. That it is absorbed unconsciously, as a portion of the schooling of the park, any one may see who makes note of the difference between the private gardens in a town that has, and a town that has not, well-developed parks.

Akin to this, is the artistic education to be gleaned from the park's sculpture and other decoration. In Chicago for the last two years there has been held, under the auspices in part of the Art Institute, an annual exhibition in a park of sculpture which is appropriate for park use. This does not consist of warriors on prancing steeds or of frock-coated statesmen, though as far as education is concerned even such works are valuable, but it consists of personifications of the spirit of the place, of appropriate fancies rendered visible—nature-poems expressed by sculpture—of the symbolical and imaginative. Many a lesson in art, literature and legend may be pleasantly learned from this work, even though history and biography be left to the city streets and squares. In fact, to educate, in literal translation, is not so much to impart facts as it is to "draw out" one's more interesting and better self. The sculpture that suggests, so that with the start thus given fancy may wander freely, peopling the park glades with fairy sprites, is educating in the truest sense and adds vastly to the park's charm. As further source of suggestion, as well as for the information they contain, branch public libraries are often placed in the rest houses of parks. The delight of reading under a tree beneath the open sky thus becomes, quite apart from the matter in the book, one of the precious lessons of the park.

As the ornaments of the park and its life in plant and animal offer opportunity for popular education through the eye, not with lessening but with increase of park enjoyment, so the music of the park offers opportunity for developing and training the ear. In the band concerts, which being free, and in attractive out-of-doors setting are sure of large attendance, there should be not less insistence on good compositions than on good execution. Rag time must be omitted, and by degrees, as public taste responds to the cultural opportunity, the character of the music can be raised to constantly higher level. There is no reason why public music in America should be inferior to that which is given in the public

places of Europe. In Rochester, to refer again to a local example, we have a couple of hundred thousand people and the right sort of a musical director, who is employed, it should be noted, on salary by the park board. Through a brief series of years, he has been raising the public musical taste by means of the concerts in the parks. He led us gently, beginning with music that was simple enough, and so beguiling us, almost before we knew it, into love of Beethoven, Mozart and Wagner. A program of last summer, which attracted 20,000 people, one in ten of the population, which is sufficient proof of its democracy, was made up of such noble numbers as the Beethoven "Egmont" overture, as the first movement from "Eroica" and as Schubert's overture to "Rosamunde." It included fragments from "Don Giovanni," "Sonnambula" and "Lucia di Lammermoor." No one could watch twenty thousand people of all kinds listening in rapt attention to these masterpieces of tonal art, without realizing the educational value of such opportunities or without feeling a thrill for the new richness that had come into their lives. Programs now are varied, with further educational opportunities, by the inclusion of soloists, vocal and instrumental, and there are great choruses, of the singing societies from home and from afar, of the combined church choirs, and lately of the children.

Mention of the children brings us to another field in which the parks have, or may have, educational value. This has been better developed by the Germans than by us. In Germany the parks are the natural source of supply for botanical material for study, in the schools; often the children have special gardens in the parks, and often troops of school children, accompanied by their teacher, take nature-walks, when the lessons of the plant and animal life of the park are taught. In our American parks, we sometimes plant commemorative trees, which we make the subject of historical discussion; or celebrate Arbor Day by having school children plant park trees, with incidental lessons in manner of planting, in choice of variety, in selection of site, and in the general problems of forestry.

The truth is, we do not begin to get out of our parks all the returns we should until we have ceased to think of them as only restful pictures or places of entertainment. Nor will the thought of educational value, if we are content to give to it its proper sec-

ondary place, frighten away the public. Even the circus, the "amusement parks" of street railway companies and the five-cent theatres have "instructiveness" among their advertised attractions. For as a people we are glad to learn; and the education to be incidentally drawn from the public park is not of the sort, as we have seen, to destroy the pleasure and rest that the park is designed to give. Change of occupation and provision of a new and wider interest many times furnish the most effective rest and the highest pleasure.

At the beginning of the discussion it was said that the park did not constitute the only form of provision for public recreation. The municipal theatre is common in Europe, and with us it is to be found in Denver and in some New England towns. The educational possibilities of the drama would manifestly offer in themselves subject for an essay. More frequently still, there are the recreation houses, such as those of the South Park system in Chicago; and there is a growing use of the school house after school hours for the recreative needs of its district. But all these recreation facilities gravitate so naturally toward educational use, a very significant circumstance by the way, that they usually are classed as distinctly educational rather than as merely recreative. For this reason, and because this volume has had to do with pleasure-grounds, it has seemed well to confine the inquiry here to parks, the least likely of all the provisions, as one might think, to have an educational function. But even the parks are only at their best, and only give the greatest pleasure, as they teach.

OUR RECREATION FACILITIES AND THE IMMIGRANT

BY VICTOR VON BOROSINI,
Hull House, Chicago.

When one spends a summer Sunday in a European small town or village one often sees a large part of the population at some kind of a fête. In eastern Europe, especially in Russia and Slavic Austria, we see the workingmen and the peasants on their holidays dancing and singing; in Germany, Bohemia and Switzerland we have turner societies giving their performances, at which the whole town assists. Each province has at certain seasons special festas, at the time when the grapes are picked, or the hops are harvested, or when the grain is brought in. The harvesting fête is one of the old pagan offerings of thanks to the gods, full of simplicity and gracefulness. Not only Germans have this fête, but also Poles, Russians, Bohemians and Italians, each in a different way.

Down in Italy, the male population, if not in a café, may be seen playing everywhere on Sundays the game of boccia. This game does not need much space; a small wooden ball is thrown, and each of the players tries to get his ball as near to it as possible. We all know what a rôle music and dancing play in the recreation of the Italians, Spaniards, Slavs and Germans.

In large cities recreation on Sundays has to be taken in a different way, and has undergone quite a change, with the help of greater transportation facilities. The latter enable the people to get out into the woods for a nickel, or less, and every Sunday morning we see whole legions storm the trains or street cars, carrying with them the necessary family provisions, which are supplemented at the picnic grounds by coffee and beer procured at low cost. In Germany libraries, bathhouses, swimming beaches, the military manoeuvre fields and armories, the gymnasiums which are attached to every school, parks and waterways provide ample space and opportunity for the recreation of the people free of cost, and in other progressive countries we find the same provision.

What happens when these people come over to the United States? We all know that different nationalities, by preference,

settle in special quarters of the city among their own kind. It is not because the part of the town is especially desirable and attractive; quite the opposite. The well-to-do move out into the suburbs, whence trains, street cars or automobiles bring them into their work and offices. The quarters deserted by them, and invaded by factories or business houses, become the homes of thousands of foreigners. It is very often the oldest part of the town, very solidly built over, though the buildings are not high. There is no provision for fresh air in the houses, the rooms are dark, streets narrow. The only open places are generally in front of churches and old cemeteries. In the East we know many such quarters, where especially the Italians, Negroes, the Jews and Poles dwell. Have they any place for recreation? Their children, yes; for imaginative children will make use of any place and any thing for play, even in the overcrowded cities. The street is, and remains, their only playground in connection with the houses and alleys in the neighborhood. Grown-up people have very little time for outdoor play and exercise. The struggle to live is so intense, the day's work requiring the whole amount of their energy and vital force, and quite a number of the foreigners are not able, or not willing, to provide the necessary food for the continuous restitution of force to the exhausted body. In the habit of keeping to a certain form of diet, they are often unable to accustom themselves to American food. Can they take recreation on Sundays and holidays as they used to at home? It depends on the kind of recreation each nationality wants.

If one goes on Saturday morning to Hester Square in New York one will be reminded of certain parts of Cracow or Warsaw on a similar day. Venerable old Jews congregate there for the discussion of the Talmud, or the conditions in the old country; the younger generations' topics are politics, races or business. There is always some business going on, though Shabbes is the day of rest. Hester Square has the advantage of being in a thoroughly Jewish section of the town, so that peace is seldom disturbed by other races.

Likewise, city squares in lower California will remind the traveler of scenes seen in southern Europe or Mexico, where a large percentage of the male population turns out on the piazza in the afternoon. This recreation strikes most people here as loafing.

It is not objectionable to the American, while certain forms of celebrating the Sabbath are considered by him obnoxious.

We do not believe that it is an advantage for any national group to form a settlement all by itself. Though it offers the only place to the newly arrived foreigner where he feels safe to a certain degree and free from restrictions, it, at the same time, retards his adjustment and conversion to the ideas and ideals of his adopted home. His absolute freedom seems to be restricted here in two very different ways, by the police and by his own children. The policeman was always regarded by the foreigner the representative of the law and government, not always dreaded, but often considered a friend and guardian angel, speaking their language and usually living in their part of the town. How different all this is here! The policeman is usually Irish or German, very few being of any other nationality; they all speak English, and are not willing, or not able, to learn another tongue. To some extent corrupt, they know that it is pretty hard to get anything from the foreigners for letting them do as they want to. They are bullied, ordered around, and arrested in no time. Recently, after a murder on the North Side in Chicago, over 190 Italians were arrested without formality in saloons where they took their time-honored form of recreation. The day was very cold; work they had not—where could they have gone but to "the poor man's club"?

The children are taught in the public schools to a large degree that everything American is all right, and that most of the things that their parents brought from Europe are no good. It may not be said in this crude way, but in substance it is the same. The grown-up people sometimes forget their surroundings, and feel inclined to do things they did at home, dance, sing and play; and then the children often try to discourage the frolics of their parents, either because they think them ridiculous themselves, or for fear of the comment of the neighbors' children. The result is that singing and playing are done behind closed doors. The people shut themselves up in their homes when they feel particularly happy, or sad, thinking, perhaps, of their little hut in the mountains or on the plains, or their stone house by the sea.

A reaction against this could be brought about by spreading public feeling of appreciation of the great moral and ethical value, and of the inherent beauty, of the ancient national and regional

plays and pastimes. An encouraging beginning has been made in American cities through the play festivals, where a large number of spectators enjoy the dances and folk songs of an ethnically mixed crowd of children and grown-ups. For many years the citizens of the different countries have celebrated their national holidays—the French, their 14th of July; the Norwegians, their day of independence from Sweden, the 17th of May; the Swedes, the old Germanic midsummer festival; the Germans had their turnerfest and sängerfest; the Bohemians, their sokol, or turnings. The difference between the two kinds of celebrations, the play festival and the other, is that the latter are celebrated by one nationality exclusively. The performers and spectators belong to the same group, the rest of the community not being excluded and not desired, while the play festival interests large differentiated groups; in fact, the whole population. By the very fact that the co-operation of their parents and kin is sought, that they appear in public, that afterward they see their pictures in the English papers and read a glowing account of the event, their whole attitude is changed. When they can say, "My mother danced the Tarantella," or "Father, the Czardas," or "Our Norwegian Choral Society was encored twice," much is gained for the child, the parents, and for the country.

The future lies in the children; give them as large an inheritance as you can, do not rob them of their associations with the old country and its amassed riches. Recreation in any form provided by public agencies in the United States does not tend to counteract the good influence and teachings of home and church, as many seem to think; on the contrary, it emphasizes them. A certain amount of discipline is necessarily maintained at the playgrounds; selfishness cannot be indulged in, for every one must have a chance. Bad habits, such as uncleanness of mind and body, will disappear, for fear of public exposure and scorn. The directors and social workers at the parks and playgrounds and recreation centers constantly try to improve the tone and the standard of their patrons, young and old.

From May to October is the busiest season of the playgrounds in Chicago. Then the open-air facilities are taxed to their utmost, the gymnasiums, athletic fields and tennis courts, wading-ponds and swimming-pools. The playgrounds proper, with sandpiles and wad-

ing-ponds, are for the use of children under 10 years of age, and are equipped with some apparatus for the enjoyment and play of the users. The wading-pond is one feature that attracts grown-up women to the parks. While their little ones enjoy the cool, refreshing water, or play in the sand, with absolute freedom from danger, the mothers sit on the benches, protected from the sun, sewing or doing other needlework and chatting with each other. Quite naturally, groups of one nationality form quickly, but as this sense is undeveloped in children, and as they mix with each other, their mothers will, sooner or later, do likewise. Children are mostly benefited, as the fatiguing day's work generally prevents the grown-up people from enjoying much physical exercise, except, perhaps, the swimming. The swimming-pools and beaches are the most popular features, and not only the men but the foreign women enjoy them twice a week. It does not cost anything, everything being free except transportation to the place. After the refreshing plunge in the pool they can often enjoy a concert given in the park or playground, the fresh air of a hot summer night being far better than the stifling heat in their homes. In some enlightened cities people are allowed to sleep out on the grass when the heat is especially oppressive, and thousands take advantage of it.

During the colder season the shower baths which are connected with the gymnasiums are constantly used, much more so than the different public bathhouses one finds in some sections of the city. The reason for this may lie in the fact that the management of the institutions is under different departments. At the playgrounds you generally find attendants willing to serve the public, under strict supervision as to their manner, while the bathhouses are often managed by incompetent friends of some politician in the city hall. The indoor and open-air gymnasiums are only for children over 10 years of age and adults. The apparatus, different in gymnasiums for men and women, helps a large crowd to play and practice as they please, but likewise, gives the gymnasium instructor opportunity to work out his scientific and more formal plan of physical work. Here, as well as in athletics, foreigners will form groups of their own, which are brought in contact with other groups at the time of contests. Then keen excitement reigns supreme; the friends of both competing teams are present and shout for their favorites. Defeat is

accepted, but always with the hope of doing better next time. In winter, skating and tobogganning are enjoyed by young and old.

In every human being is a sense of beauty, though it may sometimes be dormant. None of the new recreation centers and playgrounds can fail to satisfy the artistic vein in anybody and make him content and happy for the time being. To counteract a desire to go to saloons for drinks and meals, we find very decent lunch counters and a few inviting tables in an especially fitted room, where simple meals and coffee and cocoa are served. Some of these places are stormed at noon, when school teachers, clerks and workingmen take their luncheons there. Public comfort stations connected with each playground and field house are, indeed, a great comfort, as well as an educational means for cleanliness. They also keep men from going into the saloons.

If any time is left at the noonday recess many people will take advantage of the public branch libraries established and maintained by the park commissioners. More foreigners would probably make use of the opportunity to increase their knowledge, and to enjoy a restful half-hour at other times, if these libraries were stocked with some foreign books and magazines. But almost no provision is made for the different nationalities living around the parks, and the result is that, as a rule, only young people are seen in the reading rooms. At some playgrounds children are sent home from the library by 8 o'clock; adults are expected to take their places, and, in fact, have come in large numbers. Quite naturally, they objected to the presence of crowds of children. In other cities the plan of having separate rooms for adults and children has been adopted with good success. Smoking is not allowed inside of the field houses and small parks, which is probably another reason for the men's not coming in greater numbers. During the afternoon and evening hours the large rooms and halls of the parks and recreation centers serve other purposes. Children come after school hours for socials, story-telling hours; girls, for some kind of training in cooking and domestic science. Often they have rehearsals at this time for a singing contest, or a little children's play, to be given at 8 p.m. in the large auditorium. Not only children play, but clubs and societies of grown-ups can have the privilege of the hall for the asking. Then, too, they have theatricals, musicals and dancing. Music they furnish themselves, also

refreshments, and in the hall they keep order, while outside there are always special park policemen on the lookout. Men will still rush out and go to a saloon for a drink or smoke, though the drinking has been stopped to some extent. The influence of the hall upon dance halls in the neighborhood, and upon the way of dancing and the whole atmosphere, has been especially felt at the small parks, while in Bohemian and Polish neighborhoods they have been so successful that several dance halls back of saloons have had to be closed because their business has declined. Girls especially like nice environments and decent conditions, such as are found in the field houses. What people do in one of the South Chicago parks, at Bessemer, may be best demonstrated by two clippings from the *Daily Calumet*, their local paper:

Business is good at Bessemer. Among other things that will take place at the park this week are as follows:

To-night—

7.30. Bessemer Orchestra practice.

Tuesday—

2.30. Bessemer Housekeepers' Club, consisting of seventy-five wives, who get valuable training.

8.00. Strugglers' dance. Social club.

Wednesday—

8.00. Club for working boys.

8.00. Stereopticon lecture: Other worlds than ours.

8.30. Basket Ball. Armour Square vs. Bessemer.

Thursday—

8.00. Meteor Athletic Dance.

Friday—

8.00. Rehearsal of gymnasium classes for gymnastic demonstration. Glee Club rehearsal, under direction of students of University of Chicago."

Two hundred young people enjoyed themselves for hours on the Bessemer Park skating pond yesterday afternoon. If the cold weather continues it is very likely that there will be a local ice tourney at the park.

The larger parks are used in summer time by family groups for outings and picnics. Especially fine zoölogical gardens, green-and palm-houses, lakes and ponds attract hundreds and thousands

every Sunday, and there is no age limit as to enjoyment. The ponds and lakes offer opportunity for boating and some fishing. Where large bodies of water lie not very far from the city, fishing continues to be one of the best-loved sports of the foreign population. If the results gratify the patience of the anglers, the diet in the kitchen experiences an agreeable change. Very few people, comparatively, keep up their cross-country tramps; it may be that the absence of forests, or woods, through which one may roam at one's pleasure, as in Europe, takes away a good deal of the fun. The abominations in the form of beer gardens or amusement parks can hardly be mentioned here. They are not fit places for recreation.

A very encouraging movement, when it shall have been more generally adopted, may provide for the healthy recreation of whole families. I refer to the city gardens. European communities are surrounded by large tracts of land ultimately to be built over, but for quite a time there is no prospect of the city's extending to them. Such lots are plotted out, flower and vegetable gardens started, and some kind of summerhouse added, having accommodations for pigeons and chickens. That the gardeners are a friendly community they show at the many happy fêtes on warm midsummer nights. The hard work done by every member of the family is rewarded by a variety of green vegetables, very helpful when everything is so expensive. At Bessemer Park, in South Chicago, last fall, we saw a splendid exhibit of the children's garden products, and the work of Mrs. Pelham's (of Hull House) friendly gardeners, belonging to ten different nationalities, was watched by every one with great interest.

The public library and its branch stations, and different museums and collections, cater to the more intelligent of the foreign element, and are very much used by them for their recreation. The same can be said of the social settlements which, though not maintained as a public institution by the municipality, serve the general public and keep their doors open for everybody, without distinction of race, color or religion. We will follow here especially what Hull House does for the recreation of its neighbors. The need and want of recreation for young and old is generally conceded; if they do not get it in one way they will get it in another, often under bad conditions in the city.

Each department has a worker or two as directors. The directors of different groups are not very anxious to do all the work themselves, but they give suggestions when the members are unable to produce good, workable ideas themselves. Every detail is worked out, and great is the satisfaction when public applause shows success of the "stunt" or performance. We find different dramatic associations for children, juniors and seniors, and their work has met a merited and general appreciation. The Italian, Lithuanian, Russian, Jewish and Greek neighbors use the large auditorium for theatricals of their own; even deaf mutes once gave a representation in their sign language. Good music is offered to a large crowd of neighbors every Sunday afternoon, and this is not an amateur performance; good singers and players come from uptown to bring joy and pleasure to the hearts of the poor, who cannot pay for concerts. The second Sunday in January a musical society from Evanston gave Händel's "Messiah," and though the hall accommodates 800, many people had to be turned away for lack of space. Musical instincts are well developed among the Italians and Bohemians. The Hull House Music School has about one hundred pupils, and the Boys' Club Band may number fifty members. Their open-air concerts during the summer were events for the whole neighborhood.

During the winter months Sunday evening lectures are provided, which are of general interest and which often lead to prolonged discussions afterward. Travel, development of industries, biological and sociological subjects are discussed. The audience generally fills the hall, and many are told "No more room." Special favorites are asked each year to lecture, and their coming is greeted with thundering applause. The Boys' Club offers its hospitality to about one thousand boys. The underlying idea was to get them out of the streets and alleys, poolrooms and bowling alleys, and get them to a place where they could have some recreation under decent surroundings and good influences. Pool tables and bowling alleys, manual training, gymnasium work, play and study rooms and a library are at the boys' disposal, and a staff of men and women work hard to get some influence with the boys. The most loved forms of recreation are parties and dances for the grown-ups. Special occasions, like St. Patrick's Day and the beginning of Lent, bring a party of Irish or masked Italians to the house.

Most of the other dances are attended by mixed groups, though one is generally predominant. Only the People's Friendly Club and the neighborhood parties are absolutely international.

The inspiring thing about many of these dances is that people think of them constantly; it is often, for them, the one event of the year. The craving of people for some kind of amusement was never brought home to me so forcibly as in the following instance: A Bohemian friend had lost a baby, and wanted it buried before a certain date, in order that she and her other children might attend a picnic to which she had been asked. She had buried many children, but it was the first picnic invitation in her dreary life. Picnics during the summer time bring recreation to a good number of people, and one of the most needed charities, if such you call it, is to give to large numbers of working-girls the opportunity to relax for one or two weeks in the country, doing absolutely nothing.

The use of public schools after school hours for social purposes, municipal theaters and auditoriums for plays and dances, better library facilities, better and more beautiful housing of art galleries and other collections, increased bathing facilities, cheap and quick means of transportation to bring people out of the congested districts into the country have been established or are planned in all sections of the country. The progress made in the playground movement in the last nine years is astonishing, and it may be well to close this short survey of the recreation of the foreigner with the words of a Chicago student of the recreation centers. Mr. Eckhart says: "In these playgrounds lies the real beginning of the social redemption of the people in large cities. The greatest need of American life to-day is some common meeting-ground for the people, where business may be forgotten, friendships formed and co-operation established. The playground seems to have great possibilities in that direction. It is already the social center for the children, and it is becoming more so, more and more for adults. If we can systematically encourage this tendency and organize our playgrounds accordingly, we shall do much to satisfy a great need. A field house, in itself, is a good beginning in the way of bringing playgrounds to adults.

"The play festival is another feature which brings in the parents, and more and more games for the older people are coming to be added in most places. In many sections this year entertain-

ments and fairs of one kind or another have been held on the playgrounds, and there is an increasing tendency for mothers especially to bring their small children and to visit with each other. A great deterrent to the use of playgrounds for adults is the name, which suggests that it is for children, and the other is the lack of recreation for older people and the general lack of benches for the parents. Finally, it seems to me the general public has as yet scarcely come to a true conception of the financial need of playground systems and the size of the checks that should be made out to sustain them."

THE SOCIAL SIGNIFICANCE OF PLAY

BY OTTO T. MALLERY,

Member of the Philadelphia Public Playgrounds Commission.

Under the living conditions with which the masses of our people are surrounded, the playground is an important factor in race development. In America the trend is from the country toward the city, and each year shows a greater proportion of her whole population dwelling in the cities. The movement is economic and certain and the causes are easily recognized, although the effects are not yet fully apparent. We comprehend that the wear and tear of the mills, and the stress and strain of the factories, tell not only on the machine, but also on the workers—men, women and children. The machines are repaired or cast into the scrap heap. What becomes of the men, women and children?

The story is most completely told from English experience, where the same forces of city life have been operative for a longer period. When the steam cotton gin and power loom were introduced into England about the time of the American Revolution, another revolution of even deeper significance was inaugurated—the industrial revolution. The factory system began. The people who from time immemorial had worked in their own homes in town and village flocked to the factories in the cities. The cities of course increased in population and the workers were huddled together in rapidly congesting districts. Concomitant increase in disease, vice and crime are noted in contemporary annals.

Thousands of children of tender age entered the doors of toil in mill and factory. The working hours were twelve, thirteen or even fourteen hours a day for men, women and children. Children from seven years of age upwards were engaged by the hundreds from London and other large cities and set to work in the cotton-spinning factories of the North. In busy times they were often arranged in two shifts, each working twelve hours at a stretch, one shift by day, the other shift by night. It was a common saying that "their barrack's beds never grew cold," one shift climbing into

bed as the other got out. Profits were high, trade flourished, "England became the richest and most prosperous nation in the world." There was no provision for rest or recreation and there was little time for either.

Not until 1802 was an act of Parliament passed prohibiting the employment of pauper children under nine years of age in cotton mills, and reducing the hours of labor of older pauper children to twelve hours a day and forbidding night work. This law applied only to a small part of the working children. The rest of the children continued at the mercy of the same conditions. The impairment of the vitality of that generation does not need to be imagined. It is written large on the pages of history.

Not until 1844 was the first step taken in the protection of women from those hours and conditions of labor which were insidiously undermining the vital foundations of the English people. By an act of Parliament twelve hours a day was made the limit for women's labors, and night work was forbidden. The necessity of such protection is shown by the fact that in 1839 out of 31,632 workers in the worsted mills more than half were under eighteen years of age, and of the remaining adults eighty per cent were women. Child labor regulations lagged behind the necessities of the case. All attempted legislation regarding the hours or conditions of labor of men failed to pass.

The glitter of trade-won gold blinded England to the pallor of her people. When her sight returned the passing years had sapped the vitality of her fathers and mothers. Unhealthy, crowded, overburdened city life had left its grim and undeniable mark on haggard women, dwarfed men and bloodless children. The "submerged tenth," which to-day divides with "Dreadnoughts" English political solicitude, had been propagated under the same forced conditions which are present in many American industrial cities to-day. The factories and mills of England consumed its human machinery. Cheap labor and high profits were the main considerations of political policy. Child labor and race deterioration were the results.

When England put her army into the field in the Crimean War in 1853 the minimum standard of height for her infantry was five feet six inches. Thirty years later, in 1883, the standard had been lowered to five feet three inches. In 1900, when the transports were

filled with recruits for South Africa, another inch was pared off the height, and before the end of the campaign "five feet in stockings" passed muster. Weight and girth of chest had decreased correspondingly. "One-third of the whole number of enlisted men in the Boer War fell short of the standard of 136 pounds which had been required of the preceding generation. Fifty per cent of the London youths who offered themselves as recruits were rejected as unfit, even after the standards had been lowered. Of 11,000 young men examined in Manchester, 8,000 were rejected on account of lack of stamina or physical defect. During 1903 no fewer than 81,723 British soldiers of less than two years' service were discharged as invalids."

The debilitated city dwellers had dragged out the war on the plains of South Africa and threatened the existence of the empire. Stalwart men from the colonies, men of the type the mother country had been wont to rear in days gone by, men of the type which America is sending into her cities to-day—these men helped to save the honor of the English Empire.

We in America are students of cause and effect. We realize that the same causes produce the same effects in England or in America. The process of race deterioration in America is partially concealed by the continued influx of red-blooded, sturdy men and women from the open fields of Scandinavia, Russia, Austria and Italy. These are taking up the burdens of unmitigated toil which have worn and wasted others of equal promise.

All work and no play makes Jack not only a dull boy but a menace to civilization. All work and no play makes Mary not only a dull girl, but a mother of misery to future generations. Regulation of child labor and opportunity for child play walk hand in hand. If one stumbles the other falls. When both fall, the most powerful armaments and the richest trade balance in the world cannot resurrect the lost vitality of the race. We know that the majority of our city children have no opportunity for health-giving play. "In the planning of our cities the children have been left out." One of the functions of recreation is to recreate, to renew. We know that a supervised playground for active, pleasurable out-door exercise within the daily reach of every city child is necessary to continue the stalwart, virile, work-a-day race upon which the greatness of America depends. This is the social significance of play.

We Americans measure the value of play and playgrounds less by the soldiers than by the men and women they help to produce. We are partly led by considerations of industrial efficiency, partly by political expediency, and partly by considerations of humanity. We refuse to sit idly by while our people perish.

Activity is a symptom of life. The kind of activity determines the kind of life. "Play is more attractive than vice." If we give the city boy a chance at "the game," if we provide for him an opportunity to perform difficult feats on a horizontal bar or the flying rings, the juvenile court is deserted for the public playground. Since the establishment of a playground in the stockyard district in Chicago the number of cases of juvenile delinquency has decreased nearly one-half. In many other cities similar results are proven by the testimony of the neighborhood, of the police, and of the courts. In terms of social significance it may be said that a playground built to-day saves the building of a jail to-morrow.

One summer afternoon the writer observed a "gang" of boys at play in the city streets. The play resources of the street consisted of a pile of bricks and a policeman. The policeman, probably from past experience, realized the significance of the inter-relation. A stray breeze came from one direction. As the policeman turned to face it, a stray brick came toward him from the opposite direction. There was a great scurrying as the gang scattered. The policeman labored down the street, peered up the alleys, mopped his glistening brow and sighed ponderously. He returned, humid, depressed.

"Well," he said, "what's a fellow going to do about it? If I chase them off my beat, the next officer will chase them back. By and by one of the poor little urchins will get into trouble and be picked up for want of a decent place of play. My beat used to be in another ward, where the kids used to be too busy on the playground to bother me."

The other side of the story came from "Sly," the heaver of the brick.

"What did you do it for?"

"For fun!"

"What's the fun?"

"Say, boss, I was in the ash-barrel. Didn't the cop look funny trapezing along like a circus elephant?"

"But you might have hurt him by that brick."

"Go on, boss; I'm a better shot than that!"

It was deducible from a little conversation that "Sly" labored under the impression that his beneficent city had provided this fat policeman, togged out in his alluring uniform, as an exciting "game" for small boys in general and "Sly" in particular. Fortunately, for all parties concerned, "Sly" and his friends obtained a playground as an outlet for their energies before a broken window or a grocer's stolen cabbage landed them in court. The social significance is evident in "Sly's" neighborhood. Public opinion there now favors throwing a basket-ball at a basket rather than a brick at a policeman. More academically stated, the proper direction of the universal play spirit is a preventive of juvenile delinquency.

It seems a far cry from the ideal of fair play in boys' games to the ideal of fair play in the political life of our democracy, yet it can be demonstrated that the ideals of fair play and team play are important in forming the character of a community.

In the games of the street every boy is for himself. Victory belongs to the shrewd, the crafty, the strong. Team games of the playground require the submission of the individual will to the welfare of the team. Rigid rules inculcate fair play. A boy has the option of obeying the rules or not playing at all. New standards are set up; standards of self-control, of helping the other fellow, of fighting shoulder to shoulder for the honor of the team, of defeat preferable to unfair victory. These standards when translated into the language of political life we call Self-government, Respect for the Law, Social Service and Good Citizenship.

On any Saturday afternoon, a few years ago, the streets of the West Side of Chicago were a battle ground for rough and tumble fights between Italian and Slav boys. National characteristics and international misunderstandings were fertile causes for combat. In any case a fight was the cheapest and most convenient excitement the locality afforded. A playground and recreation center was established. Now on any Saturday afternoon long lines of Italians and Slavs, as well as Hungarians, Scandinavians, Irish and Germans, may be seen at the door of the swimming pool, awaiting their turn—with the peace preserved. On one basket-ball team a German, a Jew, a Pole and an Irishman are playing side by side for the honor of the team. Here play has become a deep, wholesome Americanizing force.

"Fighting an athletic battle," said the head director of the playground, "for the glory and honor of one's neighborhood, as a member of an organized team composed of one's neighbors, is a long step in advance of fighting for oneself against every one else in the neighborhood."

Governor Hughes, of New York, believes that the supervised playground is fertile soil upon which to grow a higher type of citizenship. He has said:

We want playgrounds in order that we may develop the sentiment of honor. In the playground the boy learns without any suggestion of rebellion against instruction and precept and preaching. He learns it because he does not want anybody else to cheat him and he is down on the boy that does not play fair. Thereby he maintains a standard which he must establish in the community, and particularly in our great cities. This is a safeguard of the country and of the institutions of our government.

The social significance of play reaches to the roots of community life. Our American cities are creating playgrounds because they are civic investments in vitality, citizenship and the prevention of crime.

THE PLAYGROUND FOR CHILDREN AT HOME

BY BEULAH KENNARD,
President Pittsburgh Playground Association, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Constructive philanthropy must set the child in the midst of all its reasoning and planning. In the child alone is inspiration and hope for those who are weary of our present patchwork methods of social progress, for those who look for a better time when decisive victories shall be gained over the causes of dependence, degeneration and crime, and when the present discouraging struggle with effects shall end.

In communities where bad housing, bad food, bad labor conditions, bad recreational conditions and bad social and political ethics are allowed to exist, the child in the midst of these things has no reasonable chance to grow into a normal healthy member of society. All social effort must look toward radical changes in these conditions if it would be effective. Neglect of them is as stupid as a fight against typhoid fever or tuberculosis, while water and air remain polluted.

One of the most fundamental defects in our public policy, until a very recent time, has been the lack of provision for play in the modern town and city. Now, however, a wave of enthusiasm is sweeping over the country and playgrounds are being opened in many places. Indeed they are becoming a factor in the betterment of families and neighborhoods that have become subnormal as a result of bad social conditions in general. When properly handled, playgrounds have given splendid service and have helped to solve many home and neighborhood problems, but when managed without intelligence and proper supervision, they have done nothing of the kind.

It requires but little investigation to see that many of the children in the congested sections of our towns and cities are below the average height and weight, have physical defects of sight, hearing and breathing, and are of low average scholarship and high average delinquency. Examination of the family life of these

children shows that, as a result of overcrowding and lack of family privacy, of long hours of labor and the pressure of modern industrial life, parents are unable to give their children the necessary care and attention, that the physical surroundings do not make for health and vigor, that the opportunities for the development of latent mental powers are wanting, and that there is little incentive for self-control or for the cultivation of moral strength. The excitement and the social advantages of the city streets are much more attractive to such children than are the dull crowded living rooms. In the case of immigrant families, the unaccustomed language and manner of living makes the parents still less able to cope with their self-assertive, Americanized children. Far too early the latter slip away from home to find their social life and recreation in the street. The street, aimless, distracting, good natured, not always vicious but always unstable and volatile, becomes their school of life. The street is the greatest disintegrating force in our modern civilization, yet children are turned loose upon it without other guide or restraint than their own undisciplined wills.

The children of the city streets may be roughly divided into two classes: the negative type, which lacks initiative, is conventional, timid, weak, and often anæmic physically and mentally; and the positive type, having initiative, vitality, daring imagination and strong will with an impatience of restraint. The former is unquestionably providing the material for the next generation of "under dogs," to be used, led and exploited by their more energetic fellows, to suffer injustice and deprivation, to go down before the first blast of serious misfortune and recruit the helpless and unhelpable. Beginning with a natural handicap, their burden of disability is constantly increased by a formless, stupid environment which provides no stimulus to endeavor, no challenge to the will, no opportunity for initiative, and no food for the imagination. Those in the smaller class who have excess energy, courage and will power sometimes rise above their surroundings, forge ahead in school and become skilled workmen and leaders. But unfortunately for these, also, the careless spirit of the street has its enticing charm, and their social supremacy in the gang draws them into political life rather than into productive work. The temptations to law breaking and excess are so many, and the legitimate amusements and

avenue for the expenditure of energy are so few that the juvenile court often receives the brightest of them before they are fairly started in life.

With both of these classes of children, the public school has been struggling with a growing sense of ineffectiveness. Our American school system was not designed to remedy the defects of homes and neighborhoods. Its methods are at present too formal and its machinery too limited, for successful character building, and it does not at all satisfy the child's social instincts. Moreover, its training is competitive and individualistic, with no provision for the social education which is so essential to modern life that for lack of it our overstrained commercial system is breaking down. The more alert among our teachers and superintendents realize that some radical changes in our schools must take place before they are capable of giving adequate service to socially impoverished communities.

In the meantime the playground has been called upon to supplement the schools, sometimes working with the educational forces, at other times, quite independent of them. In more than three hundred cities and in many towns and villages, more or less supervised playgrounds are now maintained. In spite of its popularity, however, the playground idea is far from being reduced to a satisfactory working plan. Some cities are even suffering a reaction from their first enthusiasm because the glowing pictures of happy, well-behaved children thronging these play centers have not always been realized. Until some of the pleasing superstitions concerning children are dissipated these ideals never will be realized, yet understanding will come slowly for there is nothing harder to change than a mistaken sentiment. One set of superstitions is concerned with the nature of children and the other with the nature of play, but both are opposed or indifferent to properly supervised and directed playgrounds.

"All children are good," say the sentimentalists, "except," after a few bitter experiences, "the naturally depraved and bad." This is a modern version of the older doctrine of infantile depravity. They ignore the facts patent to parents and teachers, that the moral sense of children is rudimentary and their ethics chaotic, that so far from having fixed notions of right and wrong, they are gradually forming their ideals from the examples nearest them.

The friendships and occupations of children, particularly their plays, should be watched with unceasing vigilance, for by these are their moral notions defined and their character fixed. In the case of children who lack proper home training, the need for care is evidently much greater.

Another sentiment often expressed is that children are more natural and joyous in their play if let alone. Any mother should know that this is not true, that children love no playfellow so well as one of a larger growth, and if they do not ask us to join their games, it is because we are not good playfellows. The need and the desire for help is painfully obvious among children of lower vitality and social development. Those with dwarfed imagination and little initiative do not know what to do with themselves even when provided with play apparatus and they cannot associate with other children without jealousy, self-seeking and quarreling. The small number of games known to street children of to-day is a constant surprise to those associated with them. The games which they do play, require little skill and less organization. The older ones who should be ready for team play cannot keep together through the simplest ball game unless they are fortunate enough to have among them a natural leader who can exercise a wholesome authority similar to the iron rule and personal supremacy of the ward boss.

If we had no other evidence than that of attendance, we should know that the supervised playground is more popular as well as more effective than that on which the children are allowed to "gambol like the lambs." In one city the directors in charge of certain playgrounds have objected to the admission of children under the leadership of members of the local "guild of play" because, as soon as these groups begin their games, the other children forsake all else and wish to join the personally conducted party.

When city and town playgrounds were first proposed, they seemed to present a very simple problem, almost too simple to be treated seriously. If children who lacked a place to play were given the space and a small amount of play apparatus, they would play; yet I have seen a well-equipped playground deserted on a bright summer morning while the children swarmed in the alleys and sat upon the curbstone outside. Again, I have seen playgrounds quite dominated by the rougher element in a neighborhood while the

weaker and more timid children stood around as helpless and inactive as they would have been in the street.

The modern phrase used by those dealing with the problems of organized philanthropy is "adequate treatment." Let us strive for the same adequacy in our playgrounds and see wherein they are deficient, if they have not come up to our expectations. All endeavor to deal with the human spirit must be compounded of two elements in about equal proportions—personality and brains. In the playground which gathers unto itself the sensitive, open and responsive souls of children, these two elements are fundamentally necessary. Machinery cannot take the place of character here any better than it can in the church, the school or the reformatory.

The success of any playground depends, firstly and lastly, upon its directors. You can build a playground around a good director if you have nothing but a lamp-post for equipment, while you will have inertia and discord, even vice, upon the most extravagantly equipped playground without adequate and efficient direction. We are not restoring country conditions to the children for whom we fence off a town lot on which they may play. The town or city playground is an artificial child garden with all kinds of difficulties and dangers on the other side of the fence, unnatural conditions from which we must protect our children as we would nurture the house or garden flowers which might have been safely left to themselves in their native woods. We have not escaped from the street or destroyed its influence by fencing off these children's corners, but we have hemmed the wayward spirit within such bounds that it may be dealt with, if we are able.

It is not enough for us merely to defend the children from physical or moral dangers; the time is long past when a playground should be considered in this negative fashion. By carefully directed and organized play, we can build character, develop individuality and give a sound education in social ethics, which will counteract the spirit of the street better than any other agency we could devise.

Under proper leadership, competitive games and "stunts" will arouse the ambition of the indolent and encourage the timid, constructive play will awaken the desire to make things and arouse the instinct of workmanship; dramatic play will appeal to the imagination; and team play will give the bolder spirits a chance while it restrains, by the democratic rules of the game, any bullying or

arbitrary government. This kind of efficient service cannot, however, be given by untrained or half-trained directors that are required to regulate the activities of large numbers of children of all ages and both sexes at the same time. The play director should not be a nurse, or a matron, or a policeman—he is there not to watch the children's games but to lead them.

Classification is as necessary in a city or large town playground as in a large school. In the country village an ungraded playground or school may be successful because of the small numbers, the children separate naturally into groups and the boys and girls play their own games while the little children may receive the major part of a director's attention. In a large playground, each general division should have its own play leader. The little ones need a kindergartner, or at least a woman who has had some kindergarten training, who can sing children's songs and play children's games, tell stories and provide simple occupation for little fingers. In some cities, these little ones are much neglected and, having no special play leader, they do not play many of the games suitable to their age, but dig rather aimlessly in the sand, swing or see-saw for a time and then either stand around watching, or wander away to get into mischief.

The older boys need a man, virile, resourceful, uncompromising, yet sympathetic, who will enforce fair play and the rules of the game, but will never give a boy up until the last expedient has been tried. The older girls who are usually not considered at all, need the influence of trained, enthusiastic, college women who will be able to give them ideals of self-reliance, self-restraint and social co-operation.

If we cannot supply all these leaders for a single playground, we should not lessen its value for the groups of children whose wants may be met by including other children who cannot be taken care of. It is better to have only a little children's playground, or one solely for boys or girls, as the case may be, and make its influence felt. Boys and girls over ten years of age should not be encouraged to mingle on the playground except under the most careful supervision and at exceptional times. Their games can be much better developed when they are in the different groups. The play leader from this time should be of their own sex. The combination of a little children's playground with that

of the older sisters who are responsible for them, is frequently necessary, but it is most unfair and ineffectual to give the two groups the same treatment, or to expect one woman to divide her attention between basket-ball and kindergarten games. Through organization and co-operation among the children, a director's influence can be extended over a wide area, but this can be secured only when the children feel the director's personal interest and her identification with their activities. If she is distracted by conflicting duties, she cannot develop a social spirit in the playground; she can work only with units or small unrelated groups.

The class of children of which we have been speaking—children who fail to "measure up" to our standard of American childhood and who seem likely to fall still farther from the standard of American manhood and womanhood, has become dangerously large in our country to-day. Wholesale immigration from countries having lower standards of living has contributed much of the original material, but the conditions of the immigrant's life after coming here are the really potent factors in creating this tendency to degeneration. Investigation has shown that, while some children have improved in physique and mental activity by transplanting, others have become stunted in both mind and body. This has been notably true of Italian peasants who have always lived an out-of-door life, and who suffer marked deterioration from overcrowding and from the artificial limitations of city life.

This great, careless, self-satisfied country of ours is being aroused to consciousness of the fact that it is no longer the paradise of the poor as well as the promised land of the oppressed. Our time-worn democratic policy of "letting alone" has been sadly overworked in every direction, but it is no longer even respectable when applied to children. The playground idea is a mighty protest against the flagrant inequalities of opportunity for those who are too young to appreciate their theoretical equality and freedom. Let us not repeat the errors of yesterday by expecting results without means to secure them, efficiency without training or success without carefulness.

These children are subnormal, but not abnormal; they are neither vicious nor degenerate in any way; they need only a fair chance to become Americans of whom we may be proud. The playground is not the only thing needed to check the present

appalling waste of childhood, but it can help and supplement all other efforts, and it has a peculiar advantage. In other attempts at social betterment the agency necessarily works from the outside, and the initiative of those who are helped becomes at best a secondary cause; while the playground gives only that which is the right of every child—freedom and leadership. The child owes no man anything but to become a man, and that he sets about doing as promptly as possible. When we provide the right play directors and do not give them too many problems at once, they soon discover the varied phases of the play life of a child. They see that it does not consist merely in romping or in games. The child rejoices in overcoming obstacles and in testing its strength and skill by difficult feats. Its creative energy finds expression in sand or clay or wood or raffia, and its dramatic instinct repeats adult life in a hundred ways.

To open a playground is to start a life process or to discover a new continent. Those who have entered the field with reluctance and a quizzical scepticism, have soon fallen under its fascination and will not leave the children's world for any other vocation. As they see the eagerness, the responsiveness and the rapid development of their charges, they realize, with humility, that they are sharing in the wonderful work which Charles Kingsley says that Mother Carey is doing at the other end of nowhere. They are not making things but making things make themselves.

THE UNUSED ASSETS OF OUR PUBLIC RECREATION FACILITIES

BY BENJAMIN C. MARSH,
New York City.

Of the fifteen cities, commencing with New York and ending with Washington, D. C., which had in 1907 a population of 300,000 or over, only four had over five per cent. of the city's land area in public parks. The average for the entire group was 3.8 per cent. In the second group of twenty-nine cities—the largest, Newark, N. J., and the smallest, Grand Rapids, Mich.—having a population of 100,000 to 300,000, only six had more than five per cent. of the city's land area in public parks, while the average for this group was only $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. In the third group of forty-seven cities having a population of between fifty and one hundred thousand, the average park area was but 1.9 per cent. of the city's land, and the sixty-seven cities having a population of from thirty thousand to fifty thousand in 1907 averaged only 1.4 per cent.

Recognizing the tendency of population to concentrate and even to congest in every one of these cities, it is apparent that the existing recreation facilities must be utilized to the maximum if the city is to secure the largest returns for its investment.

The per capita expenditure for recreation in these four groups of cities was fifty-one cents in 1907, ranging from sixty-eight cents per capita in the first, thirty-six cents per capita in the second, thirty cents in the third, to as low as twenty cents per capita in the fourth or largest group of cities with populations between thirty thousand and fifty thousand. In the first two groups the cost of land for outdoor recreation purposes is a much more serious factor than in the smaller cities.

A serious danger arises in attempting to advocate the maximum use of recreation facilities that we shall ignore the right of a citizen, or at least forget temporarily his right, to have some diversity in his recreation. Among the institutions in our cities of which we first think as providing opportunity for recreation are playgrounds and parks. In every town with any considerable water frontage, whether on a river, a lake or on salt water, the possibility of the use of piers

as places of recreation deserves to be carefully considered. The school buildings, which have been heretofore largely relegated to the conventional forms of education, may be much more extensively utilized to develop the play instinct and various forms of relaxation or change essential to recreation.

It should be a fundamental business proposition in every city that as many hours' use as possible should be secured from every building, no matter what is supposedly its object, since it does not pay the city to carry investment in buildings which serve even as an ornament to a district—although our schools are altogether too frequently merely an eyesore and a mortification.

Among the uses to which public school buildings may be put, in addition to the regular routine classroom work, are:

First, and so obvious that it hardly deserves to be mentioned in connection with the recreation side of the community life, the use of the schoolrooms at night as study rooms temporarily for children whose parents are undergoing the cruel process of being Americanized to two- or three-room apartments. Upon the basis of substituting city property for a child's room at home and thereby following the precedent of subsidizing the employer of unskilled labor, this system is not defensible. From the point of view of giving the children of the immigrants who have recently come to American cities the individual attention in the preparation of their studies which their own parents are unable to give them, the system is not so entirely abhorrent and repulsive to the American sense of justice. This system of helping children in their studies inaugurated by settlements, I believe, is more a pedagogical problem than a recreation problem.

Second, the utilization of schools as social centers, which has reached its highest development in Rochester, where they have proven a most successful factor in democratizing the community and in creating a sense of social solidarity. It is merely an extension of the function of the school to include the interests of the adults and parents as well as the children of the community. This is superior, in my judgment, to the mere conduct of recreation centers, which is, however, a feature of the work of social centers, and an important item in the physical development of both the younger and older groups of a community.

Third. Roof gardens. These are often suggested as possible

places of escape from the torturing heat of the tenement and the danger of the street. Here, again, however, an appeal to the common sense of figures shows that this is merely a makeshift, and that where there are six hundred children to the acre or even two hundred, and but ten thousand or twelve thousand square feet of area available on the roofs, it is evident that the minimum of thirty or the maximum of eighty square feet of playground cannot be secured for children.

Fourth. Vacant gardens and lots may in many sections of a community be reserved pending the increase in their land values for playgrounds for children, or for cultivation. This custom has been extensively carried out in foreign cities, notably in Berlin, and to some extent in Chicago and a few other American cities. The potato patch of Detroit has made the late Governor Pingree as noted as the turnip farms made Lord Townshend. This may be condoned as a temporary expedient in congested districts of cities such as are found in most American cities, where the real estate speculator has cheerfully sacrificed the rights of the community to his own interests, and where the community has wilfully ignored the claims of its poorer citizens.

Fifth. The utilization of piers has already been referred to as a possible method of providing space for children whose parents are compelled to live in undesirable districts. Even with a normal distribution of factories, which involves the most economic improvement of water frontage, the use of piers will probably be quite feasible along a seashore and on large rivers, and there will be opportunity for the children to have the advantages of a "boardwalk."

Sixth. Closed streets are often suggested as a substitute for parks and playgrounds, and, in the conflict now on between the real estate speculator and the citizens in American cities, it may be expedient to adopt this makeshift, and thus to get children used to the hard knocks they are bound to have on the streets. However, in view of the agitation for the curfew law, and in view of the folly of attempting to counteract the bad influence of the street by ethical instructions in the day or Sunday school, the irony of utilizing the street even in the daytime is fairly evident. Other makeshifts, such as the enlargement of fire-escapes on six-story tenements, and lattice-work playgrounds across narrow streets are possible.

We are not prepared to advocate the use of the yards of

police stations and fire stations, nor can the open squares around statues, monuments and circles, be made adequate for the needs.

Why, it may be asked, with the present unused assets of our public recreation facilities, should there be this temporizing and makeshift policy on the part of American cities?

In small towns there is no excuse whatsoever for the failure to provide adequate space under normal conditions for the children of the neighborhood, but it is astounding to find that many of our smaller towns as well have very few public recreation facilities.

In New York City an expert in playgrounds has suggested that a six-, ten- or fifteen-story playhouse for children would be a God-send in the built-up districts. Such suggestions are so utterly in defiance of the laws of health as to bring a blush even to the most callous. Such buildings and cramping of living quarters go hand in hand. It would seem that we have reached the point where, instead of attempting to make apology for existing conditions, it is high time to seek rather to emphasize the right of the community to be healthy, which means to have adequate space and to live by light and not by twilight, to bring up its children on square feet and not on square inches, and to keep them within reasonable distance of the ground.

The unused assets for public recreation facilities in the future are to be the ample spaces about the homes of the people, when housing conditions have become what they ought to be and when factories are properly distributed.

MUSIC AND REFRESHMENTS IN PARKS

BY PHILIP H. GOEPP,
Philadelphia.

In matters musical we in America have been wont to take our pattern from European, especially German, traditions, but, strange to say, music for the people in public parks is an exception to this rule. For reasons that are clear, though not patent on the surface, the achievement in this field in America, on distinctly different lines from out-door music on the continent, is a decided advance upon European institutions.

Some three years ago the writer made a cycling tour in Europe, mainly through Germany, crossing north to south from Bremen to Munich, with a special view to the study of the conditions of public music in summer. A startling conclusion of this survey was that nowhere in Germany is the established, regular provision of public music of as high a standard as in the United States in places like Willow Grove Park, Pa., or Ocean Grove, New Jersey. This does not take account of special seasons of opera in Baireuth and Munich, nor of the occasional Mozart festivals in Salzburg, Austria. Whether the cause be a sense of satiety from the high feasts of the winter season or a certain military policy of the government, the fact is clear that almost the only public music in summer in Germany is that of the brass band. It is probably true that the government practises not merely an economy in thus employing its regiment musicians, but that it perceives subtly the wisdom of preserving and encouraging a popular side of the military regime.

Only in one city the writer found an orchestra which alternated with a military band in the Tivoli Garden at Hanover. The effect of this monopoly of the program performed by the brass group and in turn of the taste of the audience is evident. It is to-day a frequent theme and a matter of serious concern to vigilant cities in Germany along with other strange symptoms of the times. Even in the one place where the orchestra alternated with the band, the programs of the former were decidedly inferior to those of the orchestral season at Willow Grove, Pa. To be sure, the writer's survey was not complete, and the time was three years ago. In the

kursaals of fashionable resorts there may be ambitious orchestral undertakings. But in the field of music, to which the great public has access, the writer's review is probably accurate. A great exception on the European field at large are the promenade concerts at Queen's Hall, London, under Mr. Wood, which are a successful popular institution of very high standard. A symphony concert program of the best possible design is regularly supplemented by a group of ballads performed by at least two singers—a model which it is well to bear in mind in America.

The question of refreshments is closely bound up with that of public musical entertainment in the open season. A study of the conditions, especially in Europe, discloses a curious, close relation between the two; whether this relation springs from past association or from inherent reasons is difficult and perhaps useless to determine. The question of refreshments can never be left out of sight in the whole consideration of public music. At the outset, however, it may be well to discuss the form of music that seems most desirable.

Consider the attitude of an average audience, gathered in a park, toward concerted instrumental music. A brass band is expected to be primarily rhythmic, to play mainly street or dance music with rat-a-ta-tat of drums or trip of waltz. It is very difficult with a mere band of wind instruments to play what we may call good music to such an audience, although technically it can be rendered very well. The same crowd will welcome a much better kind of music from an orchestra. The fact has been lately shown in Philadelphia, when last summer a band of wind instruments recruited from the Philadelphia Orchestra, aided by a municipal subvention, gave concerts on the plaza in the center of the city. The excellence of the initial programs met with almost no encouragement from the audience or from the municipal officials. And yet at the same time the people were crowding the trolley cars to hear the suburban orchestral concerts at Willow Grove, where a full symphony program was frequently rendered. The argument seems strong on the side of the orchestra, where it is practicable. It is quite true that stringed instruments are less effective and more sensitive than wind in the open air. But what is needed is, if not a building, at least a roof, as at Willow Grove, and that is needed even with a band, for permanent use.

It really seems that nothing is to be gained by employing a brass band, at least from the standpoint of education or edification. The real enthusiasm not the first rhythmical thrill or itch of the foot as with an orchestra, is plentifully shown in places like Ocean Grove. There is a growing thirst for the best music throughout the ranks of the people in America to-day that it were stupid to ignore and criminal to discourage. To the teacher of music it is of the commonest experience that while the idle rich support the opera, the least essential of the larger forms of music, it is from the poor and from persons of very limited means that comes the best response to serious concerts as well as the most elevated study of the art itself. There is gathered about the institution in Ocean Grove, with its chorus, orchestra and organ, a spirit and an enthusiasm for higher things that is of incalculable value in the cultivation of the people. Valuable, to be sure, are such festivals as the one annually held at Worcester, Mass., but they are short in duration and correspondingly limited in their influence.

As regards the form of our public music it seems that the orchestra is the best for concerted performance. In connection with this it is well to use for solo playing the members of the orchestra when at hand. Similarly singers can most effectively be recruited for extended arias or for ballads; in the latter case they seem to lure the more ignorant listeners to the gradual perception of the best instrumental music. It must not be forgotten that all solo performance has the virtue of affording an example to the listener and of stirring an impulse for the best of all modes of musical enjoyment in individual performance.

A large organ is of value in any ambitious place, as in an institution like Ocean Grove; less for solo performance than for the accompaniment of choruses in oratorios. Moreover, once the organ has been acquired, it needs but a single performer, though its effect is for some purposes comparable to an orchestra. If we seem thus to have settled the matter of the mode of music to the exclusion of the brass band, we cannot dismiss the latter in returning to the question of refreshments in connection with music in public parks. One explanation of the German's tolerance of vacuous music in summer may lie in the fondness for the accompanying eating and drinking.

The difference between the band and the orchestra in relation

to the matter of refreshments is strange and striking. Brass music somehow goes naturally with feasting and promenading, with an accompaniment of clattering of plates and rattling of dishes. During a symphony nobody thinks but of listening intently. But play a waltz or a military march and the German naturally craves his glass of beer.

This does not come from the mere association of symphonies with respectable academies of music; it has a deeper ground. I remember a restaurant in Munich where a few musicians were employed during the evening. While we were attacking our dinner one of the men began to play upon a mere upright piano a lengthy, little known piece of Schumann's simply, sincerely and effectively. We all naturally stopped eating and listened to the end with undivided attention.

People will go, to be sure, to eat and drink where good musicians are engaged. But inevitably the players will provide the slightest kind of music, unless in a moment of inspiration, and then the listeners, if they are capable of responding, will stop eating. It would be quite as reasonable to eat and drink during a sermon in church as during a concert of good music. In brief, then, not merely idealistic theory but experience teaches that good music demands undivided attention, while the other kind suggests some ulterior diversion or recreation.

Our conclusion ought to point not so much in a negative way to the banning of refreshments as by a positive policy to the giving of good music where refreshments will not be needed. It is not so much an exclusion of refreshments that seems the better plan as a dissociation of them from musical enjoyment. For it cannot be too clearly stated that to provide good music and refreshments at the same time and place defeats the purpose of each.

The experiment of the Boston Symphony Orchestra at its "pop" concerts in summer time might possibly be cited to the contrary. But the general testimony seems to be that they have not been successful from the musical standpoint. When the writer was present though, to be sure, they were specially "popular" occasions, the noise prevented any serious enjoyment or performance.

It seems excellent that refreshments should be provided in public parks; they are the natural element in the open-air recreation of the people; and it is certainly not the purpose of this article to

advocate their prohibition. The conjunction of the two subjects in the title of this paper suggests the consideration of the relation of the two to each other. They are both needed, but the wisdom of their association is questioned. A practical solution would seem to be to provide refreshments at such a distance from the place of the concert that the clatter of dishes and glasses will not affect the sound of the music. Thus, those persons who wanted to listen intelligently could do so undisturbed, while those who wanted mere tinkling accompaniment to their refreshment might indulge themselves without destroying the intrinsic purpose of the music. This condition exists successfully at Willow Grove, Pa. The whole subject of refreshments in public places varies greatly with national character and conditions. The glass of beer in the public gardens of Germany has a place in the national economy which is difficult for Americans to understand. It is hard for us to perceive its innocuous, nay, its beneficial, influence when not abused or misplaced. In such stretches of public domain as are to be found in the Thuringian Forest, the Black Forest or the Harz Mountains, one passes every afternoon the typical German family enjoying a lengthy walk through romantic scenery. At the turn is a pleasant open-air "Wirthschaft," surrounded by beautiful views, in which each of the family will rest over his glass of beer before starting on the homeward tramp. The excellent German beer is actually a factor of no mean importance in the social life of the people. It is not easy for us to boast of our out-door amusement, baseball, in comparison with such a reasonable form of recreation. The German way of spending the leisure of the day not only rests the nerves and stirs the sense of beauty in landscape; it has the added advantage of furthering the family intercourse.

It seems a desperate hope for us to find here a solution of our national evil of drink. One nation's habits cannot be grafted upon another. Our purpose in suggesting the place that beer holds in German life is to point to the remarkable fact that, even so, beer is seldom or never allowed to intrude in good concerts. On the other hand, it is striking that, as soon as beer is admitted, the music ceases to be worth while.

An American way, on the contrary, is to bring refreshments from home. The picnic is distinctly an American institution. In Germany and generally in Europe there is less reason for the practice

on account of the low and uniform price of simple refreshments. This habit of ours must count considerably towards dispensing with the need of a public sale of refreshments. Moreover, a lunch carried from home can be consumed with much less disturbance than one that is served with plates; it is treated as a need rather than a diversion, and it will be much less of a hindrance in listening than when one sits formally at a table.

Before stating our conclusion, it may be well to consider a natural objection that will be raised to the use of orchestra: the cost or the difficulty of recruiting it. In reply it may be said that the supply of orchestral players has greatly increased in recent years in America, and the cost is correspondingly diminishing. Every year adds a new name to the list of cities that boast a symphony orchestra. Among the later ones are Seattle and Los Angeles. The winter engagement of a musician is a serious undertaking, for the player is under contract only for the active season of the year, and he must be paid a reasonable annual salary.

In summer the orchestral player, like most musicians, is idle. He can then be employed at more moderate terms than he could afford to take during the winter. The summer orchestra in America would thus have the benefit of the large number of players temporarily out of employment. Moreover, by engaging them during the summer the great cause of symphony concerts in the winter season would be effectively advanced.

The individual members of an orchestra are usually solo players. A certain number of solo performances could be agreed upon in the terms of engagement; this would greatly add to the charm and value of the concert.

Singers could be employed at comparatively small expense. It might be well to try the English plan of engaging less well-known singers for ballads rather than for the extended aria—instead of giving way to the unfortunate rage for "stars" that prevails in America.

It is necessary to provide a building of some kind protected from the weather. An excellent provision is a large auditorium, merely roofed over, with a semicircular covered stage for the players. The absence of a restaurant from the immediate neighborhood of the concert will leave a much larger seating capacity. At a sufficient distance a restaurant could be established where the diners

might enjoy the distant sounds without disturbing the enjoyment of the actual listeners. It would not be necessary to prohibit eating in the seats of the auditorium, and smoking might be permitted where there are no walls.¹

¹In the Queen's Hall concerts, in London, the practice is successfully maintained (indoors) of allowing smoking in all parts of the house.

THE APPALACHIAN MOUNTAIN CLUB

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The founding of the Appalachian Mountain Club at Boston in January, 1876, may be regarded as the first successful beginning in America of an associated movement towards the promotion of a fondness for nature on the larger scale, and particularly as expressed in the mountain as a field for sport and means of spiritual uplift. Other societies have indeed preceded it: the little Alpine Club, at Williamstown, Mass., in 1863, composed of a coterie of the college community of that place, who, invited primarily by the neighboring Mount Greylock, passed on to pioneer investigations in the mountains of New Hampshire; the similar group of friends in Portland, Me., who, lured by the peaks lying blue on their northwestern horizon, associated themselves in 1873 under the name of the White Mountain Club; and a third, short-lived society, in a region of greater natural possibilities—the Rocky Mountain Club (1875) of Denver, Col. The first two, by reason of their limited and purely social nature, and the western club, by reason, doubtless, of the more pioneer type of civilization which accords less room and leisure for recreation, were fated to a brief existence and passed with the dissociation of the groups creating them.

Every circumstance of time, place and character of the initiators of the movement conspired to favor the establishment of a strong, useful and permanent organization when the Appalachian Mountain Club was founded. The troubles of the Civil War were over and the country was in a current of commercial prosperity, typified in the Centennial Exposition, even then being installed at Philadelphia. The nation was emerging from a narrow provincialism, and wider, more cosmopolitan views were being fostered by an increasing foreign travel—always a stimulus to an enlarged appreciation of natural scenery. Knowledge of the existence and work of the "Alpine Club" *par excellence*, founded in London in 1857, and of the continental alpine and tourist clubs based more or less upon its model,

was becoming familiar on this side of the ocean. Nowhere, perhaps, more than in Boston were the conditions favorable for the starting of a similar movement, by reason of its older and at that time more homogeneous civilization, its less strenuous and absorbing commercial spirit, and the presence here of a coterie of the pupils of the great naturalist and early student of glaciers, Louis Agassiz, several of whom were active participants in the organization of the Appalachian Mountain Club.

The call to those interested was issued by Edward C. Pickering, then professor of physics in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, but shortly after appointed director of the Harvard College Observatory. Other members of the faculty of the Institute—T. Sterry Hunt, Niles, Cross, Lanza and the younger Henck—were likewise present at that initial meeting. Most active of all in the work of organization was Samuel H. Scudder, then a leader in American entomology. Edward S. Morse, of Salem, and Charles H. Hitchcock, of Dartmouth College, then state geologist of New Hampshire, were also present and later rendered service on the early boards of officers. The club organized with Pickering for president, Scudder for vice-president, and Henck as secretary. Hunt, Hitchcock, Count Pourtalès, Nowell and Fay were the other members of its first council.

The dominant character of the scientific element stands out in this roll-call. Indeed there had been a strong expression of the feeling that the times were ripe for the formation of a New England geographical society, and a plea was made that this be the outcome of the meeting. Wiser councils prevailed, for we should then have had simply one more learned society, leading a cold and possibly precarious existence, instead of a vigorous, full-blooded, ardent club, whose growth has never been retarded, whose mission has constantly broadened, and which has served as the prototype to other similar societies in distant parts of the United States. Though the club has always been democratic in the fullest sense of the term, it should not perhaps be lost sight of that the social standing of a considerable fraction of both sexes of those interested in its foundation was a factor in its immediate success, most effectively calling attention to the high character of this movement for an entirely novel association.

As stated in its by-laws, the objects of the club at its inception were "to explore the mountains of New England and the adjacent

regions, both for scientific and artistic purposes, and in general to cultivate an interest in geographical studies." In this last phrase we may see a concession to the party referred to above. A complete statement is set forth in the paragraph introductory to the first issue of its periodical, "*Appalachia*," which appeared under the editorship of Mr. Scudder in June, 1876, the club being then but six months old. Somewhat more condensed it appears in the preface of the first annual Register (that for 1880), where we read:

"It aims to serve a threefold purpose. First, to combine the energies of all who are interested to render our mountain resorts more attractive by building paths, camps and other conveniences, by constructing and publishing accurate maps, and by collecting all available information concerning the mountain region. Second, to collect and make available the results of scattered scientific observations of all kinds, which, though of little value each by itself, yet when brought together may be of great use. Third, in the accomplishment of these ends to be a source of pleasure and profit to its members, by affording a ground on which they may meet to compare notes and to interchange ideas on subjects in which all are interested. As means to these ends the club holds monthly meetings in Boston during the winter, occasional field meetings during the summer, and an annual art exhibition; and, incidentally, organizes excursions to accessible points of interest."

A perfect form of organization was adopted for the furtherance of these clearly outlined ends. Besides the usual executive officers, provision was made for five councillors, representing severally natural history, topography, art, exploration, and improvements, who, jointly with the other officers, founded the council, the administrative body of the society. With a special officer to foster and guard its interests, no department of the club has declined in vigor in the third of a century since its organization, excepting as very strenuous effort has diminished the field for present and future activity, as notably in exploration. It seems to-day hardly credible that in 1876 the heart of the White Mountains was known only to a few timber surveyors, where now frequent companies of joyous campers pass and repass every summer; so completely has the work of this department been done.

All that the club promised at its inception it has fulfilled: the paths and camps are there and known to hundreds of both sexes; the maps exist to-day, either issued by the club itself, or rendered accessible and popularized from the results of Government surveys:

the monthly meetings have become more nearly fortnightly, and each summer has had at least one field-meeting; moreover, the club has its beautiful and convenient rooms in the Tremont Building, which house not only its valuable special library of alpinistic and geographical literature, but also its fine collections of photographs of mountain scenery from many quarters of the globe. These rooms serve as a place of meeting for individual members or groups, and even for minor assemblies. The larger regular meetings are held, as from the beginning, at the Institute of Technology,—no longer in some available classroom, but most frequently in its ample Huntington Hall. The club's publication, "Appalachia," has reached its twelfth volume, each containing four numbers and averaging over 400 pages, all teeming with articles setting forth the interesting climbs and explorations of members, not only in New England but in "the adjacent regions," which phrase is interpreted to cover all parts of our continent and even some foreign lands. "Appalachia" also presents a complete history of the club. Its volumes contain many fine illustrative plates in photogravure and "half-tone." Houghton & Mifflin (Riverside Press) are its publishers.

Most germane, however, to this article, is the purpose the club has served in increasing the health and joy in life of those who have come under its influence. This influence has been constant and ever widening. Starting with thirty-four members, its membership had reached 220 at the end of the second year, at the end of its first decade 690, of the second decade 950, and at the opening of 1910 its membership has attained to 1,630. Its financial resources have kept pace with its growth in numbers, and from the meagre income of its early years (\$500 for the year 1878) they rose to \$3,000 in 1888, \$5,500 in 1898, and \$7,000 for the year 1909. Although the club has never aimed to acquire a capital, nor stinted to this end the support of its various interests, its present invested funds amount to about \$15,000. Still other assets are its reservations of real estate. These comprise some twelve parcels of mountain and forest lands in Maine, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, donations from public-spirited citizens, and held in trust for the public as wild parks; also, as a private reserve, the club camp on Three Mile Island in Lake Winnepesaukee, some forty acres, with club-house, boat-houses, tents, observatory, and other convenient buildings and equipment.

The Three Mile Island camp represents a very active agency of the club in furnishing throughout the summer a ready opportunity for members and their friends to lead the simple life in close touch with Nature. Though near to popular resorts, the camp itself is isolated, and to all intents and purposes might be in the heart of the wilderness. The island is covered with a young forest-growth, which is carefully fostered. The campers live in tents scattered along the shore and connected with each other and the main club-house by simple foot-paths. Meals are served on the verandas of the main building, which also contains a large room with a rustic stone fire-place as a place of assembly and social intercourse. Steam launches supplement the numerous row-boats owned by the club or by members. Sails upon the lake, swimming, and trips to the shore for walks or to ascend the near-lying mountains furnish the principal types of recreation. Nearly two hundred persons availed themselves of this camp in 1908, about the usual number. On the Rhododendron Reservation, in Fitzwilliam, N. H., a farm of three hundred acres, from which it has its name, the gift of Miss Mary L. Ware, there is also a comfortable farm house, which has been reconstructed with a special view to receiving small parties of guests. This house is rented to members for short periods during the summer season, and occasionally in winter, to private parties of members and friends desiring such an outing. The reservation includes a swampy tract of some twelve acres, the habitat of one of the finest growths in all New England of this beautifully flowering shrub.

Most widely known, however, of the club's contributions to the sum of human enjoyment is the Madison Spring Hut, a stone refuge in the *col* (depression) between Mts. Madison and Adams, the two most northerly peaks of the Presidential range of the White Mountains. It was built in 1888 and nearly doubled in capacity in 1906, when it was determined to place a custodian in charge and conduct the establishment more completely under club supervision. The original purpose in building the hut was to furnish a place of refuge for those overtaken by storm or darkness, and a comfortable residence for the few who might be tempted to pass a few days at this airy height—4,820 feet above the sea and at the upper verge of the low scrub growth of fir and spruce. The reports of the few, however, proved so stimulating to the ambition and curiosity of the many, that the resort to the place rapidly increased, to such an

extent as to raise questions of right and precedence, and otherwise to create difficulties which it became impossible for the absent administration to control. A permanent representative was therefore installed in 1908, after the club had expended a considerable sum in enlarging the house and providing a separate apartment for ladies. The club supplies fuel and utensils for cooking, but not food; also blankets, to defend against the low temperatures at night. The hut is conveniently approached from the highway at Randolph, N. H., the hotels of which shelter doubtless the most enthusiastic clientele of climbers to be found in any eastern mountain resort. An elaborate system of paths, constructed and maintained by the club—or by the personal initiative and at the expense of Mr. J. Rayner Edmonds of Cambridge, an original member and officer, later president of the society—has this refuge as one of its objectives, and few of the club paths, of which some 130 miles are under official supervision, are more frequented than those of the northern peaks. They are directly connected with those leading across the summits or skirting the several cones of the Great Range, of which the summit of Mount Washington is the midway point. In traversing this "high line" one enjoys what is doubtless the finest mountain excursion afforded by the mountains of eastern America. Hundreds make it now every year. Probably the number who had made it antecedent to the founding of the Appalachian Club would hardly have exceeded the number of those who may form a single club-party of the present day. For such as desire to cover the trip in easy stages it is possible to take advantage of certain of the club's log camps, by descending into some of the side ravines. On the other hand those limited in time, but not in strength, may go from the Madison Spring Hut over the range to the Crawford House in the Notch in a single day.

Besides these paths to and along the summits of mountains the club has opened shorter trails to interesting objects in different parts of the White Mountains, such as the Ice Gulch in Randolph, the "Lost River" in North Woodstock, where the stream winds an almost subterranean way among vast boulders, or to that giant erratic, the Madison Boulder, perhaps the largest in the United States, in the town of the same name. And all these facilities, save only Three Mile Island, the club offers as freely to the public as to its own members. Consequently it is not strange that it is regarded

as a society of public utility, and that it is granted special consideration as regards taxation by the legislatures of New Hampshire and Massachusetts, and certain privileges by the large owners of forest tracts, whose good will is of no small importance.

It may have been noticed that, in setting forth the objects of the club, the organizing of excursions to accessible points of interest was spoken of as "incidental." So it was and such it has remained; but the incidental bulks large among the popular and truly useful activities of the club. Indeed, one of the hardest worked committees is that on excursions and field meetings. They have in charge not only the arranging annually of a series of excursions with large parties, but the details of these and their personal conducting by one or more representatives of the committee. Such excursions are principally to mountain resorts of New England; yet the Adirondacks, the Catskills, the Appalachians of North Carolina, and even the distant Selkirk and Cascade ranges of the Far West have been the goal of enthusiastic club parties. Since 1886 a new feature has provided the enjoyment of visits by frequent smaller parties to the nearer points of interest, combined with the healthful exercise of walking. These are the weekly "outings" to the hills, parks, groves or seashore in the vicinity of Boston, or within easy access by rail, led by some volunteer member of the club. Foul indeed must be the weather to occasion a postponement. The outings are becoming more popular than the excursions, if we may judge from the statistics of 1908, when the total number on six excursions was 290, an average of 48, and on forty-three outings it reached 2,293, an average of 53.

In this connection mention should be made also of the "Snowshoe Section," an organization within the club and under its control, yet having its own officers and being in most respects independent. It was organized as early as 1886. Its object is to encourage snowshoeing, not only as an exercise, but more especially as a help in mountaineering. All club excursions of more than two days' duration in the months of January and February are in charge of the snowshoe committee. It numbers some 280 members, about one-sixth of the entire membership of the parent club.

It would perhaps be claiming too much to say that to the Appalachian Mountain Club is due the extension of its idea and methods to the other parts of the country, yet doubtless its singular

success has been an inspiration to those who led in the founding of the Sierra Club in California and the Mazamas in Oregon, the leading out-of-door societies of the Pacific Coast. With grander mountains readily accessible, the alpinistic feature is more in evidence in those than in the eastern society, which must content itself for the most part with lower altitudes and less exciting ascents, and make more of the exquisite sylvan features of our own forests and lakes.

If the writer of this paper, who has followed the fortunes of the club from its inception to the present day, were called upon to tell wherein the organization has been of chief advantage in the larger social life of the time, he would refer to the conspicuous part it bore in the work of creating the Metropolitan Park system of Boston, the conception of its then councillor of topography, Mr. Charles Eliot, but he would lay even greater stress on its effect in awakening a dormant love of out-of-doors with its clarifying and uplifting ethical influence and in providing the way in which hundreds, and even thousands, who otherwise never might have found them, may enjoy the delights of the deep woods and the cloud-swept mountain top.

The story of the Appalachian Mountain Club and of its successful work deserves to be read and pondered in every city of our land, particularly in those favored by proximity to mountains or to other grand or beautiful natural features. Similar societies might to great public advantage be formed in many places, which later might become affiliated with the Appalachian Club in a way similar to that in which the numerous local "sections" of the great German and Austrian Alpine Club contribute to swell its influential total to well nigh 100,000 members.

THE SOUTHERN APPALACHIAN PARK RESERVE AS A NATIONAL PLAYGROUND

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As phenomenal as has been the increase in population and the industrial and commercial development of the eastern half of the United States in the last quarter-century, we have every reason to believe that the next quarter will witness changes even more significant than those of the recent past. It is worthy of note that the development of a diversity of wants has progressed at a more rapid rate than the population increase. This has naturally revolutionized industries as to establishment, relative importance, equipment, labor control, marketing and distribution. The increase of aggregate and per capita wealth has kept pace with our marvelous industrial and commercial growth.

Springing from this maze of material prosperity, arise conditions so perplexing in character and impoverishing in tendency as to demand the serious consideration of every individual who is unwilling that the highest privileges of many be sacrificed to the financial emolument of the few. We are well aware of the influences rife for suppressing any movement which, for the well-being of posterity, thwarts the march of predatory gain. It is, therefore, becoming that we emphasize in a way which cannot be misunderstood the importance of conserving some of nature's stores on a sufficiently large scale, not only to fulfill adequately the urgent demands of this generation, but to meet the more pressing demands of our children and those who shall come after them.

The problem of forest conservation is usually discussed with reference to the primary object of supplying economically the lumber demands of the present and the future, but the prospective forest reserve in the southern Appalachians is far broader in its scope and purposes. For several years the government has had under consideration the feasibility of acquiring in the southern half of the Appalachian Mountains a large forest area geographically

situated in southern West Virginia, southwestern Virginia, eastern Kentucky, eastern Tennessee and western North Carolina.

Though the chief aim of this discussion is to point out the importance of this forest reserve from the standpoint of what it will mean to the people of the United States as a national recreative resort, it may be of interest and profit to outline, first, some of the economic benefits to accrue from the project, since these represent the fundamental purpose of the movement in its inception.

The region in question occupies the heart of the largest wooded region which remains east of the Rocky Mountains. Considering the states involved individually, we find that 73 per cent. of West Virginia is wooded, 58 per cent. of Virginia, 62 per cent. of Kentucky, 53 per cent. of Tennessee and 73 per cent. of North Carolina. Only a small proportion of the improved lands of the respective states is situated in the mountainous parts under discussion. From the standpoint of agricultural possibilities the region has little to offer, and the uplands which have been cleared and placed under cultivation are for the most part so unproductive as to give a scant living to the mountain people who have struggled to maintain themselves in these rugged regions since the early part of the last century. The great resource of this region has been lumber, and this is its most important resource at this time, except in the West Virginia-Virginia-Kentucky coal field. Though it is typically a hardwood region, and the part of the Appalachian belt where the hardwoods are developed in greatest variety and excellence, many soft woods also grow luxuriantly in favorable localities. Not only is this the most virgin part of the largest hardwood belt in the United States, but it is the only hardwood region whose economic environment is such as to foster a perpetuation of forest conditions. The wasteful cutting and destruction of the forests throughout this area has naturally resulted in degrading rather than improving the character of the resource. The slaughter continues, and fires of accidental or incendiary origin annually devastate hundreds of square miles of land on which would grow the most valuable cabinet hardwoods to great perfection. The protection which the government has given to her other forest domains is ample evidence that the destruction of the woods in the above region would be largely eliminated under governmental supervision and forest police protection. The present supply of the more valuable hardwoods is not equal

to the demand, and yet the present rate of cutting is about three times the average rate of growth.

However many substitutes for wood may be discovered and invented, there must always be an urgent and even growing demand for certain varieties, unless the developments of the future contradict all past experience. The future supply of lumber for the United States east of the Mississippi River is a problem which cannot possibly be solved except by generous donations and concessions to the future need. In proof of this, pass in mental review the facts that four-fifths of the magnificent forests of the Great Lake States have already been cut; that New England has been practically exhausted of her hardwoods; that, exclusive of Maine, the New England States are importers of hard and soft woods; and, that the great yellow pine forests of the Gulf and Atlantic coasts are being cut at a rate which means extinction in about thirty years. The Michigan forests are destined to go, since the land is agriculturally productive and adjacent to highly profitable market centers. New England, so diversified in its soil and topographic characteristics, will continue to supply a certain part of the lumber demand from the regions unsuited to agriculture; but in the more sterile parts of New England the timber growth is slow and the quality of the product inferior. The Coastal Plain is adapted to trucking, the raising of small fruits, the cultivation of cotton, corn, rice, sugar cane and grasses. It is also accessible to cheap transportation facilities, and becoming each year more accessible to the great market centers of Eastern cities. Economically, therefore, this belt is ruled out from the possibility of remaining a large forested region.

The evidence in favor of a forest reserve in the more rugged part of the southern Appalachians is, indeed, overwhelming, if we consider only its adaptability for forest products; but there are other important economic ends to be subserved by the project. This southern extension of the mountains emerges into the Piedmont Plateau, which abuts on the Atlantic Coastal Plain. The streams which flow from the mountains flow with a regularity not characteristic of any streams in a deforested region. They also possess great water power potentiality in the mountain part of their course, through the broken plain of the old Piedmont, and at the *fall line*, where they drop from the old land area to the new. The import-

ance of conserving the forests of this region for the sake of the maintenance and development of the maximum water power would be of itself sufficient cause to justify an enthusiastic support of the movement. Not only is the water power of the streams of this region sufficient to maintain industries for the manufacture of the raw materials of the region itself, but sufficient to supply power by transmission to a large part of the outlying regions for the manufacture of the raw materials of the coastal plain. It may be of interest to know that South Carolina and North Carolina are developing cotton factories more rapidly than any other part of the United States, and it is the magnificent water power of the Piedmont Plateau and the adjacent Appalachian Mountains, in convenient proximity to the cotton fields, which has turned the tide of factory development from New England to this part of the South.

It would be difficult to estimate the economic benefits resulting from the regulation of flood waters, held back by the slow run-off in the large forest areas of the mountains. It is safe to predict that this element of destruction will be brought under more perfect control by the larger development of water power through the construction of storage dams at favorable points along many of the rivers which have their source in the mountains.

During recent decades the urban population of the eastern United States has increased very rapidly in the North Atlantic States and in the Middle States, and the rural population has increased with as phenomenal rapidity in the Middle States and in certain parts of the Southern States. The urban population of the United States has increased far more rapidly than the rural population, and it seems that this tendency will be accentuated in the future, instead of being retarded. An abnormal increase of the city population carries with it important moral and social problems, which must be dealt with in the spirit of generosity and the common good. The people of the cities of every class find it necessary to seek rest and recreation. It is only natural that the relaxation and recuperation should be most perfectly realized in pleasant situations removed from the stress and strain of the city environment. Under the growing demand for recreation facilities have sprung up pleasure resorts throughout the wooded regions of the Appalachian Mountains, at many points along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, as well as on the shores of thousands of inland lakes. The

test of experience is bringing into popular favor, with those who really need rest, the quiet, cleanliness and beauty of the mountains. At present we have room and to spare of this character, but it must be remembered that, if the population increases as rapidly in the future as it has in the immediate past, that part of the United States east of the Mississippi River will before the middle of this century have a population greater than the present total population of the United States. The cities will grow larger and more numerous, and the regions adapted to agriculture will steadily increase in density of population. So great will be the number needing and seeking recreation that the mountain reservations will afford neither quiet nor privacy, unless large areas be acquired in this generation.

The utility of recreation facilities is determined by the character of the facilities and their accessibility. Though many of the superior facilities of the southern Appalachians for healthful and pleasurable recreation are well known to thousands who have enjoyed them, it is not amiss to call attention to these in connection with any discussion which looks toward a realization of the Southern Appalachian National Park.

The most thrilling and obvious characteristic of this wide expanse of easily accessible mountain region is its varied landscape, which so intermingles the new with the old, the rugged with the gentle, and the wild with the domestic, as to be of surpassing beauty. The mountain slopes are clad with virgin forest growth, which is majestic and varied in species. The narrow, productive valleys thread the landscape as artistic draperies on Nature's verdant mantle of forests and fields. Nowhere does the sun shine brighter, and the forest landscape is perfected by the artistic variation in cloud effect, which now charms with the azure blue high over the living green; and again, in matchless colors of a summer's sunset, blends into one harmonious panorama the gorgeous beauties of earth and sky. The fame of Swiss and Italian mountain scenery has gone into every land, but the conservative traveler who has seen the best of these beautiful lands is forced to acknowledge that they are rivaled by many picturesque scenes in the Appalachians, which have not been immortalized by poet or artist.

Healthfulness is one of the essential requisites for adapting any region to recreative purposes. The region included in the pros-

pective Southern Appalachian Reserve is conspicuously noted for its mild and salubrious climate throughout the year. Western North Carolina is one of the few spots in the United States which is popular both as a summer and winter resort. The health record of Asheville, N. C., held first place on the statistical record until the community became so popular as a resort for individuals afflicted with tubercular infection as to upset the normal health and death records.

People who need rest are also in need of quiet and the opportunity for seclusion, when such is desired. This is giving to our mountain playgrounds and camping grounds a substantial gain in popularity over the more or less congested pleasure centers of our sea and lake shores. The desire for rest and seclusion will, however, not appeal so strongly to the average man and woman unless the region which offers the opportunity also bids fair to supply an adequate amount of varied, nutritious and palatable food. The seaside resorts supply this want to the satisfaction of those who come, but since most of them are in close proximity to large cities and populous regions it is necessary that the food supplies be purchased at maximum city prices. The Appalachian region in question is sufficiently far removed from congested centers and city markets to make prices of food commodities reasonable. The narrow, but fertile, valleys produce an adequate food supply of the varied products indigenous to this latitude, which are scarcely surpassed in quality and variety by any other similar area. The lower foothills and the upper mountain slopes add generously to the table wants by supplying every variety of orchard and small fruits grown in the temperate zone, the reputation of which as to size, beauty and flavor has gone forth to regions far beyond the mountains. But this is not all, for the crystal streams which plow their way madly toward the lowlands give home to fishes of the sporting types, the delight of catching which is only rivaled by the satisfaction of eating. Mountain trout constitute one of the coveted delicacies of the hotels. Fishing will continue one of the most buoyant recreations of the mountain traveler and vacationist, but more and more will the opportunity for its enjoyment be limited to regions under government protection and control.

Hunting appeals to the masculine sense of recreation with a call as strong as the fishing sport, and a large forest reserve of the

character and extent under discussion would afford the opportunity to indulge this natural aptitude under conditions satisfactory to all parties concerned. Thousands of travelers sojourn each year in the woods of Maine and Canada for a few days, or at most a few weeks, of hunting and fishing. Many go far into the interior by canoe or pack to find that rest which can only come from close contact with the wilds of nature.

The superior opportunities for camp life afforded by a large, accessible and well-watered mountain region are worthy of consideration. There are many who prefer a vacation by camping because they love the entire change in habits of living, and find rest in roughing it. There are others who either choose or are forced to become campers, because of the small expense attached thereto. The government would, naturally, place certain restrictions on this privilege, for the protection of those assets reserved for supplying a steady dividend to all sufficiently interested to come and draw.

The number of individuals who select their recreative or vacation resort with reference to opportunities for studying nature, either as specialists or amateurs, is increasing rapidly, and in planning for the future it is not only important but necessary that we make provision to meet satisfactorily the demands of this large class. Under this class will be included all persons who are interested in the study of flowers, trees, rocks, minerals, birds, insects, wild animals, and people. No part of the United States is better adapted by nature for fulfilling this purpose than the Appalachian Mountains. In this connection we should also bear in mind the profitable purpose which will be subserved in this large forest reservation in affording unusual opportunities for promoting the advanced study of forestry and landscape gardening. Mr. Vanderbilt was the first individual to demonstrate a full appreciation of the excellence of the region as a field laboratory in this important division of science and economics.

The recreative activities of Chautauquas and of the annual or periodic meetings of various organizations are being emphasized more and more in the selection of suitable places for the convention or assembly, whatever its character. These represent now a large constituency, and the number will increase rapidly during the coming years. Not only is it important that the place offer the attractions and facilities which will give the attendants the most pleasure

and relaxation, but equally important that it shall be centrally located with reference to the sections to be served. The part of the southern Appalachian region intended for inclusion in the new park reserve fulfills ideally both of these requirements; so much so that for some years Asheville, N. C., has probably attracted as many public assemblies as any point in the United States; and certainly has attracted more than any other rural locality.

The accessibility of the region, both to the population as distributed at present and to the prospective population of the future, deserves more than incidental consideration. If one will take the time to locate the region on a map of the eastern United States, one will find that this most beautiful part of the mountains of the East is easily accessible to the states bordering the Great Lakes, to the Atlantic seaboard as far north as New York, and to all the Southern States. In fact, it is within twelve hours' travel of more than 50 per cent. of the population of the United States. If development takes place along the lines of natural economic returns, the increase in population in the forthcoming decades will be most rapid in the central and southern part of the Mississippi Valley and in the Atlantic coast plain, which regions surround this prospective park reserve on the east, south and west. We have already mentioned the rapid increase in manufactures in the lower Piedmont, which bring with them a corresponding increase in the density of the population and the variety of classes to be served.

Until recent years the growth of cities has been most phenomenal in the North Atlantic and Middle States, but the tide has already shifted, and the most rapid relative increase in urban population is now taking place in the states south of the Mason and Dixon line. This is coming about through the concentration and industrial utilization of native capital, along with that of investors from various parts of the United States and foreign countries. There is no question but that the Southern States have already inaugurated an industrial revival which is destined to revolutionize the region industrially, socially and, probably, politically. All of the forces at work are tending to a consolidation of interests and a generous exchange of good will, which makes it self-evident that the project under consideration will not only be national in its origin and purposes, but in its pleasures and privileges.

THE FIELD AND FOREST CLUB OF BOSTON

BY G. W. LEE AND L. G. HOWES,
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"The study of nature as a means of culture in good citizenship" is, according to a clause in its constitution, the object of the Field and Forest Club, and within this broad range come many and varied activities. Though the title and the avowed purpose are both suggestive of the scope, we can hardly know the club without knowing a little of its history.

The preliminary meeting was on the evening of February 1, 1904, when not only were aims and objects discussed and a committee appointed to frame a constitution, but there was an illustrated lecture given, in order that the gathering of that very night might feel itself a working organization. The charter members included, as at present, young and old, physicians, lawyers, ministers, teachers, photographers, householders and their children, campers, trampers and some scientific men and women—there being no restrictions as to sex, sect or age. Later it was decided that none younger than 17 should be eligible to membership.

The club is composed of those whose tastes lead them to outdoor pleasures and the study of nature. The object of the society is being realized through the development of a sense of civic responsibility.

A prospective member must sign an application card on which two members recommend him or her over their own signatures, and must pay \$1. If the Council at its next session, and the club at open meeting, vote favorably on the application, the new member receives a notice to that effect, the constitution and the current *Calendar*.

A glance at the "Year Book," published in 1906, which still holds good, shows the proportion of events. The topics of the monthly public meetings during 1904 included birds, butterflies, shells, mines, the Pueblo Boy, the Deerfield Valley, trees, leguminous plants, and exhibitions of fruit, flowers and vegetables and photographs. The evening events regularly occurring on the second

Monday of the month are but one phase of club activities. The most characteristic feature of the *Field and Forest Calendar* is the Saturday outing, a weekly event the year around. The first to be listed was on March 26, 1904, a visit to the Charles River Basin and Hemlock Gorge, with a geological student in charge. The "Year Book" shows a succession of tramps to the seashore, the hills and woodlands of the vicinity of Boston, with now and then a trip to some scene of local history. To those who live in this vicinity the mere titles will suggest the treatment of the trips, but to the reader from elsewhere it should be said that the Saturday trips are conducted by club members, or, not infrequently, by others intimate with some special topic or locality connected with the trip.

The *Calendar*, or working program, has for several years been issued quarterly. That for the last three months of 1909 was revised and reissued for distribution at the "Boston 1915"¹ Exposition, where the club had an exhibit. On this was stated what the Field and Forest Club stands for; recommendations for civic improvement, such as preservation of viewpoints, tree labeling, establishment of children's museum, brief excursion guidebook, etc.; the usual quarterly list of nature books for reading, besides the regular notice of the Massachusetts Horticultural Society's exhibits. The forty-two events for the first three months of 1910, as compared with the seventeen or eighteen of the same months in 1906, show an increase in number and diversity commensurate with the growth in membership. One may ask, Do you not offer too much and tend to discourage some members from taking active part? Yes and no. A few have desired a small club in which all should know one another and all attend substantially every event; others, looking at it more impersonally, have aspired to take in all the events, but have seen that in growing to be a large organization we may have circles within circles, and ramify from a central body to district or topical groups.

The *Calendar* for January-March, 1910, is appended to this paper. A discussion of it will indicate the club's activities.

January 1. New Year's Outing at Bungalow. This notice suggests several points to be explained. The Bungalow, though not the property of the club, is the enterprise of club members. It was built almost entirely by volunteers, and is managed as though

¹To learn the significance of the "Boston 1915" movement address "Boston 1915" Committee, 6 Beacon Street, Boston.

it were the property of the club. On two Saturdays of each month it is open to stockholders, while it may be rented by members of the club at any other time. The Bungalow is situated on Lake Pequit, in Canton, some twelve miles from the center of the city, and is a spot much prized by visitors for its natural scenery—trees, shrubs, birds and a beautiful sheet of water. Note that the costs incidental to the outings are stated. This is characteristic.

January 3. Council Meeting. The Council is the executive board, having the administration of the affairs of the club. Twelve of the councillors for 1910 are men and five women, somewhat inversely the proportion of men to women in the club.

January 5. Old Nuremburg and the Germanic Museum. A feature of the present *Calendar* is the Wednesday evening series of class meetings, answering the demand for formal organization and regularity of meetings for study. Travel talks is the general topic for the first Wednesday of each month.

January 8. Lawley's Shipyard. In the winter season Saturday trips are frequently made to places accessible in weather not suited to country walks.

January 10. Open Meeting: A Trip to Alaska, illustrated by stereopticon. The public monthly meetings offer an interesting lecture besides allowing time for club business. The lectures, as well as the Round Table Talks, afford opportunity for the club to extend its hospitality. The experiment of meeting at the Boston Public Library is now being tried. It means a packed audience, for the library attracts many people of the lecture-going habit.

But one of the avowed purposes of the society is community service; and the change means the probability of more rapid growth than ever before and transition from a "social" to a "sociological" organization—to use the term loosely—from a club to an association. In short, it means a time when the club is rapidly making its history, so that its picture of to-day may be decidedly different from that a year hence.

January 12. Boston Parks and Viewpoints. Tree study is the topic of the second Wednesdays; and this kindred subject is not inappropriate. Much of our park system is an arborway, and there is hope of the club's issuing, ere long, a booklet on the trees and shrubs of the Parkway for five miles, from the Public Garden to the Arnold Arboretum, "that Mecca of tree lovers," as

J. Horace MacFarland calls it in his "Getting Acquainted With the Trees."

Closely associated with parks are viewpoints, and to preserve these, which are diminishing in number with the growth of the population, is one of the active interests of the club. To this end a petition was drawn up for signature and exhibited by the club at the recent "Boston 1915" Exposition. There is every hope of this petition proving successful, and if so, the event will in all probability mark the beginning of what may strictly be called "civic betterment" work on the part of the Field and Forest Club.

January 15. Trip to Little Nahant for "Shore Water Birds," followed by

January 19. Round Table Study of "Shore Birds," the first meeting of the year of the Wednesday bird classes, which should lead up to bird walks in April and May, the migrating season. Little Nahant has the attraction of the seacoast, and it was here that two Saturday afternoon trips were made for introductory lessons in hydroids, sea anemones and other life in the tide pools. Further opportunities to study ebb tide zoölogy will probably be offered by the spring and summer *Calendars*.

January 20. Formation of Camera Club. There are many photographers in the club who exhibit their work each year, in October. Three meetings on photography, that included developing, printing and a general talk, comprised the course of the preceding quarter; and this formation of a camera club should mean the beginning of collections of photographs taken on the trips, besides a good deal of photographic work in the interests of the various classes and committees.

January 22. Country Tramp, in two of the most attractive of our suburbs, Weston and Wellesley, which, accompanied by snowshoeing and followed by a campfire supper, will prove a typical winter event. An announcement on the *Calendar* arranges for snowshoe trips at short notice and calls for the telephone numbers and addresses of those who wish to be notified.

January 24. Skating. It is customary to have an outdoor evening event each month, about the time of the full moon. It is usually a moonlight walk; but skating is naturally chosen for this time of year.

January 26. Class in Minerals, followed by lessons on Rocks
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and Soils, on the fourth Wednesdays of February and March. The continuation of a series of geological talks on the preceding *Calendar*, which will naturally lead to geological or physiographical trips in the spring.

January 29. Spot Pond to Pine Banks. A cross-country walk, typical of the Saturday trips at any time of the year. This one is in the Middlesex Fells region, part of our Metropolitan Park System, which nearly surrounds Boston, and will by "1915" very likely afford a continuous parkway, widening for long intervals into extensive woodlands, from north shore to south shore, within a radius of ten miles from the heart of the city.

January 31. Nature in Art. A course of social conversation meetings, held at the home of two of our members, whose long years of foreign travel prepare them to enrich our program with studies from Boston Art Museum; works of English painters; the French school, and other related topics.

February 1. Annual Reunion. The principal social features are the annual reception, Christmas festivities and occasional suppers, followed by addresses. These functions have frequently been held in the Twentieth Century Club Building.

February 2. Canoeing on the Susquehanna. Travel talk by experienced canoeist, whose camera has noted remarkable landscapes and sites of exceptional interest for historical and literary associations.

February 5. Museum of Fine Arts. One of Boston's newest sights and a suitable place to visit in winter.

February 7. Council Meeting. A fixture for the first Monday of each month, as noted under January 3.

February 9. Work of Massachusetts Forestry Association. The second of the tree meetings, affording an opportunity for the speaker, secretary of that organization, to show wherein the Field and Forest Club may co-operate in the work of the Forestry Association.

February 12. Historical Walk No. 6 (Somerville). This series of historical walks began in November, 1908, being confined mostly to places associated with the War of the Revolution.

February 14. Impressions of South America illustrated by stereopticon. Open meeting. Second Monday.

February 16. Winter Birds. For the entire series of Round

Table Classes the Boston Public Library furnishes most valuable books, maps, plates and pictures.

February 18. Nature in Art. This course attracts numbers and calls out enthusiasm beyond our anticipations.

February 19. Stony Brook Reservation. Like the Middlesex Fells, this reservation is part of our Metropolitan Park System. Though much smaller, it is equally attractive in its own way.

February 22. Field Day at Bungalow. Washington's Birthday, the only holiday of this quarter. The Bungalow is a favorite rendezvous on holidays. At all seasons of the year it is a fine experiment station for nature students.

February 23. Rocks. This class is led by an eminent geologist, and illustrated by specimens and plates.

February 26. Valley of Noanett Brook. A typical country tramp, especially appreciated by the snowshoers.

February 28. Identification of Shrubs. Anticipating spring walks, when the succession of flowering shrubs in the Arnold Arboretum makes a glorious display; and week-end trips to Uncanoonuc Mountain, where, in its season, the mountain laurel is unrivalled.

March 2. Glimpses of the Philippines. The third of the travel series. The leader will show weapons, tools, costumes, and pictures of home and street life.

March 5. Peabody and Agassiz Museums, for the study of special animal types. These great collections have been frequent objective points during inclement weather. They are appreciated by the club in connection with class work. The famous "glass flowers" are at the Agassiz Museum.

March 7. Council Meeting. First Monday.

March 9. Trees in Winter; resuming the class work taken up in the preceding months, and anticipating tree walks in the spring. The following note appeared on the *Calendar* as issued: "The Tree Talk of March 9 is the fourth of the series that began in October. No special preparation, however, will be required; but a circular, outlining a limited amount of preliminary investigation or study, is to be sent a few weeks before the meeting to those who signify an interest in the subject. It is hoped that the tree interests will be an important feature of the club in the immediate future. At present the work consists largely in gaining the ability to identify

our common trees at all seasons of the year. Some tree census work has been done in the streets of Dorchester, and statistical results are recorded in the "Year Book" of 1906.

March 12. Newton Highlands to Riverside. Like the tramp of January 22, this ends with a campfire supper, a somewhat novel feature.

March 14. Unfamiliar Holland. Regular open meeting; lecture illustrated with the reflectoscope, by which pictures, postcards, and illustrations from books, as well as lantern slides, may be thrown on the screen.

March 16. Birds; new arrivals from the South, anticipating the spring migrations.

March 19. Waverly Oaks and Beaver Brook Reservation. These ancient trees stand in one of the smallest, but most accessible, reservations of the Metropolitan Park System.

Same day. Fifteen-mile walk. An alternative to the above trip, and listed with a view to ascertaining, among other things, who are the real walkers of the club.

March 22. Moonlight Walk. A feature of nearly every month, and enjoyed by many who are not free for tramps on Saturday afternoons.

March 23. Soils. The leader, an expert scientist, has given the club summer field lessons on Nahant rocks, Nantasket beach and the Blue Hills.

March 24. Parkways and Viewpoints; especially the unfrequented roads northwest of Boston, and elevations from which beautiful views of ocean may be obtained.

March 26. Edison Plant. Visit to a central electric lighting station. Sixth anniversary of the first Saturday outing on the club's record.

March 28. Nature in Art. The French school.

March 30. Microscopy. To be followed by a series on microscopy in the next *Calendar*.

Week-end trips to seashore or mountain, very popular in some seasons, are not listed in this quarter.

After thus reviewing the activities of the society, one may ask, What is the spirit of the members, and what is the club likely to stand for in the immediate future?

The Saturday afternoon walks are the backbone of its existence; but some members find restful diversion in lectures; others seek refreshment in study; still others gain strength in working for reform. It has been shown that the club program meets the varying needs of different members. The degree of satisfaction felt by these members and the effectiveness of the club work depend, of course, upon good management of the general scheme and able leadership in each event.

We have said that recommendations for civic betterment are likely to appear on future programs; for instance, members may urge the establishment of a children's museum in Franklin Park, and the institution of student-guides in public reservations, as docents are already established in art museums and as aids in public libraries.

But enthusiasts must not transgress by coercing club energies toward this or that reform. It is a privilege, not a duty, to take part in any club appointment; and if activity in any measure were forced upon the members, the society would fail of being the recreative organization the majority desire.

The program of events connects club work with nature-lovers at many points. It presents a feasible plan for country, as well as city communities, as it is capable of providing a working basis for social union among the members of small and separate circles in villages needing a center of educational and social activity for all the towns people.

The mission of such a club is to study, appreciate and develop the natural resources of its homeland; and it will find its province, purpose and methods of procedure modified, from time to time, till it settles into shape.

FIELD AND FOREST CLUB.

JANUARY-MARCH, 1910.

N. B.—Trips are on Saturdays, when the day of week is not noted; evening meetings in Fine Arts Department, Boston Public Library, 8 P. M., when not otherwise noted.

The Round Table Class Meetings assigned for Wednesday evenings are a somewhat new departure. It is to be noted that each general subject has its regular Wednesday, viz: Travel Talks, first Wednesday; Trees, second; Birds, third; Geology, fourth; Microscopy, fifth (March). Books on Subjects

Allied to the Wednesday Evening Class Work will be found on table in the Fine Arts Department, Boston Public Library, marked Field and Forest Club.

JANUARY.

1. *New Year's Outing* at Bungalow, Pleasant Street, Canton. Skating and snowshoeing under favorable conditions. Take 2.33 P. M. car from Mattapan Square. Bring lunch; only coffee furnished, 5 cents. Entrance fee, 10 cents. Bring rubbers. Fares, 24 cents.
Mr. Wm. P. Edwards, Miss Helen Lancaster.
3. (Monday). Council Meeting.
5. (Wednesday). *Old Nuremburg and the Germanic Museum.*
Marie Ada Molineux, Ph. D.
8. Visit to *Lawley's Ship Yard*, South Boston. Meet at Brown's Drug Store, 701 Broadway, corner K Street, South Boston, at 2.30 P. M. (Take any Broadway, City Point car.) Ten cents.
Miss H. F. Holmes.
10. (Monday). Open meeting. *A Trip to Alaska.* (Stereopticon.) Boston Public Library Lecture Hall. Enter on Boylston Street.
Mr. Charles A. Stone.
12. (Wednesday). *Boston Parks and View Points.*
Miss Gertrude Howes.
15. Trip to *Little Nahant*, for Shore and Water Birds. Leave B. R. B. & L. Station, Atlantic Avenue, Boston, at 1.35 P. M. for Lynn. Meet leader at Boston and Maine Railroad Station, Lynn, outward platform, at 2.15 P. M. Leader from Norfolk Bird Club.
19. (Wednesday). *Shore Birds.* Miss Frances Zirngiebel.
20. (Thursday). *Formation of Camera Club.* Beginners may join.
Mr. A. H. Chamberlin.
22. *Country Tramp, Norumbega*, Doublet Hill, Weston Reservoir, Wellesley Farms. Five-mile walk. (Wear heavy shoes.) Meet at Boylston Street Subway, southbound electrics for Norumbega, 2 P. M. Bring lunch. Campfire and hot coffee at 6 o'clock. (Take snowshoes if practicable.) Twenty-five cents.
24. (Monday). *Skating.* Meet corner Havard Street and Talbot Avenue, Dorchester, at 7.30 P. M. Mr. Henrik Renstrom.
26. (Wednesday). *Minerals.* Dr. B. F. McDaniel.
29. Cross country from *Spot Pond to Pine Banks.* Take 2 P. M. car for Spot Pond, from lower level, Sullivan Square. Four miles. Ten cents. Mr. Vernon Field.
31. (Monday). *Nature in Art.* Studies from Boston Art Museum. Meet with Mrs. Mosher, 107 Howland Street, Roxbury.

FEBRUARY.

2. (Wednesday). *Canoeing on the Susquehanna.*
Dr. Chauncey Morris Carpenter.
5. *Boston Museum of Fine Arts.* Meet at entrance to Museum, Huntington Avenue, Boston, at 2.15 P. M. Mrs. F. F. Farwell.

7. (Monday). Council Meeting.
9. (Wednesday). *Work of Massachusetts Forestry Association*. 3 Joy Street. 8 P. M. Mr. Irving T. Guild.
12. *Historical Walk No. 6*. Prospect and Central Hills, Somerville, Mass. Meet Sullivan Square, upper level, south platform, 2 P. M. Ten cents. Miss A. B. Drowne.
14. (Monday). Open meeting. *Impressions of South America*. (Stereopticon.) Boston Public Library Lecture Hall. Enter on Boylston Street. Mr. Thomas Barbour.
16. (Wednesday). *New England Winter Birds*. Miss Frances Zirngiebel.
18. (Friday). *Nature in Art*. Works of English Painters. Meet with Mrs. Mosher, 107 Howland Street, Roxbury.
19. Tramp through *Stony Brook Reservation*, West Roxbury, Mass. Meet at Boston Elevated Railway Terminal, Forest Hills, lower level, 2 P. M. Ten cents. Miss F. L. Moffitt.
22. (Tuesday). *Field Day at Bungalow*. Cars leave Mattapan half hourly, starting at 1.33 P. M. Bring lunch. Soup and coffee furnished at small expense. Fares, 24 cents. Social Committee.
23. (Wednesday). *Rocks*. Dr. B. F. McDaniel.
26. *Valley of Noanett Brook*. Meet at South Station Waiting Room, "Plymouth," at 2 P. M. 2.12 P. M. train to Charles River Village. Five miles. Bring lunch. Wear old clothes and stout shoes. Take snowshoes, snow permitting. (Get tickets of leader.) About 45 cents. Mr. H. S. Upham.
28. (Monday). *Identification of Common New England Shrubs*. Miss M. W. Howard.

MARCH.

2. (Wednesday). *Glimpses of the Philippines*. Mrs. Wm. Vernon Wolcott.
5. *Peabody and Agassiz Museums*, Cambridge, Mass. Special types of animal life. Meet Harvard Square, Boston Elevated Waiting Room, at 2.15 P. M. Miss Gertrude Howes.
7. (Monday). Council Meeting.
9. (Wednesday). *Trees in Winter*. Mr. G. W. Lee.
12. Road walk *Newton Highlands to Riverside*, ending at Riverside Recreation Grounds with campfire and basket supper. Meet Park Square, Boston, in season to take Boston and Worcester car at 2 P. M. About 25 cents. Mr. Joseph Rowe.
14. (Monday). Open meeting. *Unfamiliar Holland*. (Reflectoscope.) Parish Rooms, Church of the Advent, Brimmer Street. Rev. Wm. H. Van Allen, D. D.
16. (Wednesday). *Birds*. New arrivals from the South. Miss Frances Zirngiebel.

19. (a) *Waverly Oaks, Beaver Brook Reservation*. Meet southbound, Park Street, Subway platform, 1.45 P. M. Ten cents.
Miss Bertha Randall.
(b) *Fifteen-mile Walk*. Meet at same time and place.
Mr. G. W. Lee.
22. (Tuesday). *Moonlight Walk*, Winchester to West Medford, via Mystic Parkway. Meet North Station Information Bureau, in time for 7.14 P. M. train. (Buy ticket to Winchester, 15 cents.) Two miles. Twenty cents.
Mr. E. Minot Talbot.
23. (Wednesday). *Soils*.
Dr. B. F. McDaniel.
24. (Thursday). *Parkways and View Points*.
Mr. John S. Edmands.
26. Inspection of the *Edison Electric Illuminating Company's Plant*, "L" Street, South Boston, Mass. If pleasant, meet in South Station Waiting Room, "Plymouth," at 2 P. M. If stormy, meet at Brown's Drug Store, 701 Broadway, corner "K" Street, at 2.30 P. M. Ten cents.
Mr. C. C. Littlefield.
28. (Monday). *Nature in Art*. French School. Meet with Mrs. Mosher, 107 Howland Street, Roxbury.
30. (Wednesday). *Microscopy*.
Mr. S. S. Bradford.

ANNOUNCEMENTS.

Massachusetts Horticultural Society Exhibits, Horticultural Hall, 300 Massachusetts Avenue (corner Huntington Avenue).

- (1) Free Exhibition of Photographs of Chinese Plants, Animals and Scenery, for two weeks ending Sunday, January 9, 10 A. M. to 4 P. M.
- (2) Exhibition of Plants, Flowers, Fruits, Vegetables, Saturday, Sunday, Monday, February 26-28.

BOOKS FOR READING.

A Rambler's Lease, Bradford Torrey.
Bird Life, Frank M. Chapman.
In American Fields and Forests, Thoreau, Burroughs and others.
Curiosities of the Sky, G. P. Serviss.
Evolution of Worlds, Percival Lowell.
Our National Parks, John Muir.
The Lay of the Land, Dallas Lore Sharp.
Annual Reunion to be announced later.

Information regarding club affairs may be obtained of Miss Ethel M. Kimball, 227 Ashmont Street, Dorchester, Mass.

THE SIERRA CLUB

BY MARION RANDALL PARSONS,
Berkeley, Cal.

The Sierra Club was organized in San Francisco, in 1892, in the early days of the forestry movement. Its main purposes were to aid in that movement, and, as its articles of incorporation express it, "to explore, enjoy, and render accessible the mountain regions of the Pacific Coast, to publish authentic information concerning them; to enlist the support and co-operation of the people and the government in preserving the forests and other natural features of the Sierra Nevada Mountains."

At the time the greater part of the wonderful range from Mt. Shasta on the north to Mt. Whitney near its southerly extremity was as unknown and of as little interest to the average Californian as were the Andes or the Himalayas. A few books and magazine articles describing the range had been published, and a handful of men had acquired the habit of following in the footsteps of John Muir and other exploring spirits and spending their vacations as high in the mountains as they could penetrate. To another, less desirable type of visitor, indeed, the Sierra Nevada had long been familiar ground. The sheep men were yearly driving huge bands of "hoofed locusts" through the forests and mountain meadows and were rapidly denuding them of every form of vegetation, from the seedling conifers down to the tiniest blade of grass. To awaken public sentiment and frame laws regulating the grazing of sheep and cattle; to create forest reserves; to protect the watersheds; to establish national parks; to save the more wonderful regions from destructive invasion of any sort, and finally to arouse the people themselves to a knowledge of the great, unexplored treasure-house that lay neglected at their very doors—these were a few of the undertakings that the Sierra Club set for itself.

During the earlier years of the club's existence its mountaineering activities were limited to individual endeavor or to the work of small parties of members. The exploration of the little known alpine regions, the first ascents of difficult peaks, the laying out and

mapping of trails occupied the attention of many of the members throughout the summer months, and the results of their observations and discoveries were chronicled in the "Sierra Club Bulletin," an illustrated magazine published semi-annually for our members and for exchange with other mountaineering clubs.

After John Muir, the president of the Sierra Club, who has made the Sierra Nevada his study for forty years, and who has done more than any other man to bring its beauties to the notice of the American public, one of the members most active in the exploration of the mountain chain is Professor J. N. Le Conte, whose work for many summers past culminated last year in the discovery of a route for pack animals along the crest of the Sierra from the Yosemite to the Kings River.

One public work, in which the Sierra Club took an active part, was the movement for the recession of the Yosemite Valley to the Federal Government. The Yosemite Valley had been set aside as a state park long before the Yosemite National Park was established, and for many years it existed as a separate entity, a park within a park. It was under a different administration, which caused endless confusion, and was greatly handicapped in its development by the smallness of the appropriation that the state could afford to make it. Public opinion, however, was at first strongly against its recession, and it was only after a long fight that the bill passed the state legislature in 1904. The event has proved the change to have been a wise one, as under the federal rule travel has already greatly increased and still greater improvements and a larger appropriation for its maintenance are confidently expected for the future.

In 1901, nine years after the founding of the club, a series of annual outings or excursions to the more remote and inaccessible portions of the Sierra Nevada was inaugurated, whereby one hundred and fifty people were given the yearly opportunity to learn the delight of Sierra days. The undertaking was quite a formidable one, as at that date a distance of from fifty to sixty-five miles lay between the ends of the railroads and the zone where the wagon roads ended and the trails to any of the greater features of the Sierra—the Tuolumne Meadows, the Hetch Hetchy Valley, the Kings or the Kern Canyon—began. Fortunately only the lightest outfits are required for a Sierra sojourn. The mountain climate is the most

hospitable for campers that the world has to offer. Rain never falls at night and as the infrequent thunder storms are only the brief episode of an afternoon, tents are quite unnecessary. A pack train of from fifty to sixty animals carries all our baggage, the general commissary supplies, the portable stoves, the kitchen utensils, and the modest personal outfits, including in their forty pound limit the sleeping bags and entire wardrobe of the owner—in short, all the impedimenta for a month's absence from civilization.

The personnel of the party, which is limited to one hundred and fifty persons, is made up of Sierra Club members, members of other mountaineering clubs of America, and, in case of vacancies in the list, of a few outsiders recommended by members. The outings are co-operative, not designed to bear profit but only to cover the necessary expenses, and though subsidiary to the club, are self-supporting. The chairman of the outing committee has absolute authority over them and all questions of itinerary, personnel, arrangement of camp and discipline are settled by him.

The outings usually last a month. From the end of the wagon road we travel afoot, the hardship of the long miles lightened by the genial fellowship of the open trail; for guides we have the geological survey maps; for inns any convenient grouping of trees, meadow and stream; for beds pine needles or fir boughs; for roof-tree a canopy of stars. It is almost impossible to convey to any one who has not experienced it the endless joy of this untrammelled existence, the charm of traveling day by day through scenes of wonderful beauty, climbing long ridges into widening horizons, pierced by snowy mountain ranges, or swinging down through the wooded sides of some deep canyon to its level floor where a trout stream sings its way among flowery meadows.

The presence of many distinguished men has made one feature of the outings a notable one. Around the campfire in the evenings we have listened to informal talks on geology, or the plant and animal life of the Sierra, given by men of world-wide reputation. Grove Karl Gilbert, C. Hart Merriam, John Muir, and many others have often spoken before us and taught us to enjoy the mountains more intelligently and to take an active interest in all things concerning them. Musicians and poets have not been wanting to grace the lighter part of the evening's entertainment.

These outings have proved to be of enormous benefit to the

club's purposes. Those of us who have learned to know the uplifting of spirit, the renewal of bodily strength and activity of mind which accompanies every visit to these wonderful alpine regions, feel that we owe it, not only to the present, but to future generations, to do our utmost to preserve in its natural beauty some portions of the Sierra wonderland for the enjoyment and benefit of the public. We believe that the interest in mountaineering and the recognition of the value of national parks as public recreation grounds is so far only in its infancy in America, and that before many years shall have passed our American mountaineering clubs will number their members by the hundred thousands as they now do in France and Germany. Our membership is now over 1,200, and is growing each year.

The highest uses of our national parks will ultimately be not to the traveler, but to the workers of the state. Many years ago Josiah Royce pointed out one danger of our California climate, "In that the comparative evenness of the successive seasons prompts active people to work too steadily, to skip their holidays, and by reason of their very enjoyment of life, to wear out their constitutions with overwork." It is a danger that the years have by no means lessened, but rather increased. Experience is teaching us the absolute necessity for recreation, above all out-of-door recreation, as a health-giving factor in our civilized life.

The claim has been put forward in a recent controversy over the inviolability of national parks that these regions are the rich man's playground, and that the wage earner will never receive any benefit from them. In no sense is this true. The rich man, with the whole world as his playground, has no especial need for the national park. While in this stage of our development the average unenlightened man who works with his hands may derive no immediate benefit from it, we have another type of wage earner to consider—the thousands of men and women who work with their brains, in offices, in schoolrooms, in colleges, in hospitals, in business houses, many of them people of liberal education and refined tastes with a craving for beautiful things as strong as the craving among baser natures for cheap excitement. The worker with his hands has his amusement parks and his picnic grounds, more of them every year; but for the higher type of workman no form of rest and recreation can compare with the untrammelled life in the

open air that our national parks offer him for his much-needed holiday.

The national parks, then, stand not as a luxury for the few, but as a growing need for thousands in this complex life of ours; and if the Sierra Club has helped, be it ever so little, toward bringing about the recognition of their value and urging the people to their support, its organization has not been in vain.

This paper would hardly be complete without mention of the other two mountaineering clubs of the Pacific Coast, the "Mazamas," of Oregon, and the "Mountaineers," of Washington. The Mazama Club was organized on the summit of Mt. Hood, July 19, 1894, and it was the first club to institute annual outings. "The purposes of the club are to explore mountains, to disseminate authoritative and scientific information concerning them, and to encourage the preservation of forests and other features of mountain scenery in their natural beauty." It is more distinctively a mountaineering club than either of the others as the requirements for membership are as follows: "Any person who has climbed to the summit of a snow-peak, on which there is at least one living glacier, and the top of which cannot be reached by any other means save on foot, is eligible to membership." The Mazama Club has done some notable scientific work in connection with its outings and through the efforts of individual members, and these are recorded in their publication, "The Mazama." One of its chief accomplishments was the creation of the Crater Lake National Park.

More recently, in July, 1906, the "Mountaineers," a club with headquarters at Seattle, was organized. Its first outing was to the Olympic Mountains where the first ascent of Mt. Olympus was made. As a direct result of the work of this club President Roosevelt declared the Olympic region a national monument, and its 1,500,000 acres of peaks, ice fields and glaciers, and its alpine parks, the refuge and habitat of some three thousand of the Roosevelt elk, altogether make up a national playground that is destined to become celebrated throughout the world. The "Mountaineers" record their investigations and transactions in a magazine called the "Mountaineer," which they have developed into a splendid annual. The purposes of the "Mountaineers" are: "To explore the mountains, forests and water courses of the Pacific Northwest, and to gather into permanent form the history and traditions of this region; to

preserve, by protective legislation or otherwise, the natural beauty of the northwest coast of America; to make frequent or periodical expeditions into those regions in fulfilment of the above purposes. Finally, and above all, to encourage and promote the spirit of good fellowship and comradery among the lovers of out-door life in the West."

RECREATIVE CENTERS OF LOS ANGELES, CALIFORNIA

BY BESSIE D. STODDART,
Secretary Los Angeles Playground Commission.

The "playgrounds" of Los Angeles, although officially bearing that title, are more than the name implies. In reality, they combine the usual playground features with forms of social activity most often found at the settlement house. Hence, "recreative centers" will be found the more fitting term.

In September, 1904, a city playground commission was created by ordinance, which directed "That a commission to be known as the Board of Playground Commissioners, composed of five persons, of whom two shall be women and three shall be men, shall be appointed by the Mayor, to have charge of the public playgrounds of the city of Los Angeles. Said commissioners shall serve without compensation." They have authority to appoint a superintendent and other employees.

It was thought best to make a special department in which time and attention could be given wholly to studying and developing this new and important function of government, rather than to force the work on some old department as a side issue, where it might be neglected. The rapid growth of the work in spite of small funds (only about \$137,000 has been expended up to January, 1910), has shown the wisdom of specializing. With the Los Angeles charter revision, the commission will undoubtedly become a charter commission.

The Violet Street Playground, or Playground No. 1, as it was called, was opened in June, 1905. It was about two acres in size and cost in the neighborhood of \$11,000 for land and \$6000 for improvements. This center is open every day in the year, and is made attractive to persons of all ages. For the young children there are sandboxes, large kindergarten blocks and baby swings. For the girls there are swings, seesaws, maypoles, basketball, volleyball, croquet, tennis, etc. For the boys there are facilities for field sports, baseball, handball, basket-ball, also play apparatus and a large open-air gymnasium with roof to shelter from sun and rain and a floor

of soft tanbark to fall on. A small building contains hot and cold showers. For the mothers a summerhouse is provided, where they may sit and read or watch the children at play.

There are forty-five small gardens, for both boys and girls, where young gardeners grow flowers, also vegetables for home consumption. Under volunteer assistance a very successful "Park Department" was formed of children interested in this work. Care of the playground trees and plants was undertaken, as well. A system of marking for regularity in watering, weeding, caring for tools, etc., was inaugurated, and appropriate prizes awarded to those who received the highest number of points. Divided into two groups, the little gardeners also competed for their respective sides.

A very important part of the equipment is the clubhouse, a quaint bungalow in one corner of the grounds. This contains a large main room with stage, clubroom, storeroom and kitchen supplied with dishes and utensils for use in giving entertainments. In the afternoon children meet for sewing or other manual work, for games, drills and folk dancing, or musical organizations. In the evening those over 15 years of age form clubs in dramatic, musical and gymnastic work. On Saturday evenings except during summer months in this center, as in all the others, an excellent course of lectures, concerts and plays is given, for which many of the most talented people of the city generously give their services. The last Saturday evening of the month is reserved for home talent, when the children and young people give the entertainment. Certain evenings in the month, the clubhouse is reserved for parties given by groups connected with the center, the nearby public school, or any set of neighbors who may speak in advance.

The equipment of the center is completed by a pretty bungalow, the home of the director. Too much cannot be said for the benefits of this residence feature. The man and his family become an integral part of the neighborhood, and the influence of a well-ordered, hospitable home permeates the atmosphere of the center. Here, again, the settlement idea is exemplified.

The second Los Angeles playground was opened in May, 1907, and was a five-acre extension of Echo Park, bounded by four streets. Originally it was but a miserable hole in the ground, a detriment to the neighborhood. The Park Department kindly filled the tract and presented it to the Playground Department. Later they

added to their generosity by parking one end of the ground and edging the rest with a beautiful border of trees, shrubs and vines.

Echo Park Playground is equipped in much the same manner as the center just described, but being over twice the size, accommodates more apparatus and more visitors. Sometimes on Saturday afternoons there are as many as seven hundred children and young people at play, with several score of elders looking on.

An interesting development of this center is the Playground Republic, to which most of the children and young people, who are regular visitors, belong, although membership is not compulsory. The members elect their own president, judge, police and other officers, enact rules and have general charge of their enforcement. However, very little discipline is required on a well-supervised playground. The citizens pay a monthly tax of 5 cents. From this fund are bought athletic supplies, in addition to what the department furnishes. Inauguration of republic officers takes place on March 4, with serious public ceremonies.

The clubhouse of this center is an artistic structure, built when prices were very low, for about \$4000. The auditorium is 32 by 48 feet and has a stage extension. It is beautified with cheerful fireplace, built-in bookcases, window-seats, and windows on three sides. The house fronts upon the beautiful lake of Echo Park. An office, two clubrooms, a kitchen and two dressing-rooms are provided. The finish is of Oregon pine, oiled, the effect being very pleasing. In the basement is a workshop for boys, also a room containing box bowling alley. When the clubhouse was opened neighbors gave a number of good pictures, a bust of Lincoln and other furnishings. The playground director has made his home in the clubhouse, but a bungalow residence will soon be built for him. A large wading-pool will also be added to the equipment of the ground.

The social activities of the clubhouse are many and varied. Musical work is prominent, and includes a boys' band, a girls' band, an orchestra and a mandolin orchestra. The band instruments were donated to the playground. The young people pay a small fee to their musical leaders. Opportunities are also given children and older people for dramatic expression. At the recent Christmas celebration thirty-six girls gave a beautiful Christmas play under the leadership of volunteer helpers.

The Playground Commission early felt that the municipality should afford special recreational facilities for the working young men and young women and the adult population. It was determined to build what was termed a recreation center, to distinguish it from the playgrounds proper, as affording better means for indoor play, a house that should offer something of what the social settlement or Y. M. C. A. building furnishes. A corner lot, 200 by 120 feet to an alley, located in a central industrial district, was secured, costing less than \$9000. Of this amount \$1000 was subscribed by two industrial companies. Here was built a handsome brick-and-plaster structure in the Spanish Renaissance style, so prevalent in southern California. The building, which would ordinarily cost about \$30,000, was built when prices were low, and cost less than \$21,000. Equipment, including bowling alleys, amounted to about \$5600. The place was opened to the public in October, 1908.

The main feature of the building is a fully equipped gymnasium, measuring 44 by 74 feet, with windows on three sides. On the fourth side a large stage opens, for the gymnasium is also meant for use as an auditorium. Ordinarily the stage is closed off with rolling doors and is used as a clubroom. The gymnasium is two stories in height, a gallery furnished with a running track being located at the second story.

Other features of the building are, briefly, as follows: Ten marble shower-baths, modern locker-room, storeroom and furnace-room, two model bowling alleys, district nurse's headquarters, kitchen, two clubrooms, library; physical instructor's office, where measurements are taken and records kept; trellised roof-garden, which commands a magnificent panorama of the city and mountains and is equipped with sandbox and building blocks for children, and with electric lighting for evening socials; and last, but a very important factor, a pleasant five-room apartment for the manager. For here again the home rounds out the work of the center and establishes helpful relationships.

The recreation center is the scene of busy activity, afternoons being given over to the children, evenings to those over the age of 15. The gymnasium, baths and bowling alleys are used at certain times for men and boys, at other times for women and girls. The club organizations are particularly interested in dramatic and musical work and frequently give entertainments. The boys take pride in a

well-trained drum and bugle corps. Saturday evenings are given to the regular lecture and entertainment course.

The lot accommodates a small playground, simply equipped. Vines and shrubs add to the beauty of the center. In time it is planned to add another building to the original one, to contain an indoor plunge, additional showers, boys' workshop, larger club-rooms, etc. The present building will then be but one wing of the larger structure, which will surround a court on three sides.

The Playground Department aims to have these centers bring together kindred forms of municipal work. The public library was induced to place a playground branch at each of the three centers described, and to provide the services of a playground librarian, a woman specially fitted for this work. Each branch is open two afternoons and one evening a week. In all, about 1,500 books a month are circulated. Current magazines, also daily papers provided by the press, supply the reading-room. Checkers, authors and other quiet games may be enjoyed. From time to time volunteer helpers conduct a story-telling hour, scrapbook-making and similar lines of work.

Under the management of the College Settlement, the city supports a system of instructive district nursing. At the Violet Street Playground and the Recreation Center specially fitted-up rooms are furnished for the headquarters of two of the nurses. Here supplies are kept, calls for nurses are registered and some dispensary service rendered. The chief work of the nurses, of course, lies in the homes of the district, each nurse averaging sixteen visits a day. The nearby schools are also inspected by them.

Recently a municipal Band Commission has been created. This department co-operates with the centers by giving band concerts there as well as in the parks. The idea is to make the concerts of a high order and to give instruction concerning the music to be rendered.

Early in 1910 two new playgrounds will be opened. Of these, Hazard Playground contains about eleven acres. It will be particularly adapted to field sports and ball games. Tiers of seats on a natural slope will be built for large numbers to witness games, meets and festivals. The playground adjoins a tract of rolling ground of some fifteen acres, which is to be a park. It also adjoins a school site, where a new school will soon be built. It is proposed

to have a general scheme of landscaping, making the whole an ideal combination of school, park and playground. All of the land was a gift to the city some years ago.

Slauson Avenue Playground is a $4\frac{1}{2}$ -acre tract which the city Water Department kindly gave to the Playground Department to equip. It will have, when opened, about the same improvements that the Echo Park Playground now possesses, with running track in addition. As with the other grounds, trees, shrubs and flowers and a vine-covered fence will beautify the place. The clubhouse is a very artistic two-story building of plaster and half-timber style of architecture. The auditorium is 32 by 52 feet, the stage 20 by 24 feet. Trucks run under the stage to accommodate storage of chairs. There are two large connecting clubrooms, office, kitchen and dressing-room on the main floor. The lower floor contains showers for boys and for girls, boys' workshop, headquarters for district nurse, and space for two model bowling alleys, which will be furnished later on. The building cost about \$9000.

The two last-named playgrounds are in outlying sections of the city. These sections, owing to modern traction, are rapidly settling with small homes, and it is well that the grounds already belong to the public and do not have to be acquired later at great expense, and after a generation of children has grown up without them.

A sixth place, which will be called the Downey Avenue Playground, is also city land, and centrally located. Equipment will commence as soon as funds allow. It comprises $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres.

Plans are not yet completed for the development of Agricultural Park which comprises some 117 acres central to a large population, but it is probable that about six acres will be given the department for a playground like those described. Also, that a thirty-acre tract will be set aside for an athletic field, which will be used for big games, meets and play festivals of every description. This can be used by athletic organizations, by schools in playing off contests—in fact, by the whole city as a common. Moreover, contests between teams from various cities can take place here, making it a center for athletics in this section of the state.

With a present population of 350,000, and still growing, and with an area of 85.9 square miles, and still annexing, it will be seen that Los Angeles needs a great many play centers. It is hoped that within a few years several other well-located playgrounds may

be bought and added to the list, either by issuing bonds or by means of assessing districts. The municipal budget allowance for each of the last two fiscal years, for outlays, expenses and salaries, was \$40,000, and for the present fiscal year is \$45,000.

Besides the permanent grounds, five vacation playgrounds are conducted by the department during the summer. These are school grounds which have been equipped with swings, seesaws, maypoles, ladders, bars, slides, sandboxes and blocks, basket-ball, croquet, etc., at a cost of about \$400 each. In several cases a part of the sum has been raised by the children and the Parent-Teacher Association of the school. A competent man and woman conduct the activities at each ground. Story-telling hour in the big sandboxes is an interesting feature. The kindergarten rooms are used for folk dancing and for groups in basketry, sewing and other handiwork. Both children's and doll's clothing are made. At three grounds there are school baths, and these are operated. The play apparatus is allowed to remain permanently on the grounds, and the School Department has an attendant at each ground after school and for a half-day on Saturday during the school year.

At the close of each vacation all the permanent and vacation grounds have a great inter-playground field meet. There are no individual contests, but all entries are by teams of boys and girls, for this method encourages backward children and develops the spirit of co-operation. The car companies provide transportation for the teams. Each ground has its own color, which is combined with the general playground color, green. One of the newspapers awards a silver cup to the ground that scores the highest, and individuals and firms provide other prizes and pennants for events, all of which are kept at the several centers as trophies. The summer's handicraft work of all the grounds is exhibited in the clubhouse.

On May Day of 1909, was held the first annual play festival, all the grounds meeting at Echo Park Playground. About 15,000 visitors formed a hollow square, viewing with intense interest the beautiful exhibition of drills, games and folk dances. Children from the kindergartens and grades, older boys and girls from the high schools, groups from Y. M. C. A. and settlement, all took part, while the children of the various playgrounds carried out the picturesque old customs connected with the maypole dance and

crowning the Queen of May. Music was furnished by the playground band and orchestra and the *Examiner's* Newsboys' Band. In the evening another large throng enjoyed an exhibition of folk dancing as presented by the foreign colonies, in which Spanish, Indians, Germans, Syrians and others took part.

Various other holidays are celebrated at each of the centers. For Arbor Day the children of the nearby schools march to the grounds and engage in planting and in appropriate exercises. For Fourth of July patriotic exercises, band concerts and races are held. For Christmas there are evening entertainments, plays and Christmas-tree parties. Frequently kindergartens spend mornings at the playgrounds. Schools, churches, Sunday schools and orphanages often hold all-day picnics, and for these special games and sports are prepared in advance.

The work on the playgrounds is well systematized, for it is not sufficient to provide merely space and apparatus. The children are divided into junior, intermediate and senior divisions for various sports and games, and a great many match games are played. On the last Saturday afternoon of the month each ground tries out its own individual and team records in athletics. On the following Tuesday are posted the records of all the grounds, together with the world's amateur records.

At the beginning of its work the Playground Commission was able to secure as superintendent a man of college training, whose services have been invaluable. By his knowledge of the building trades he is able to save the department thousands of dollars each year. Still better, he is able so to organize the work of the grounds as to make it most effective.

On each playground there are a man and a woman director, and, of course, janitor service is provided. At the Recreation Center there is, in addition, for gymnasium classes, a physical instructor, who is employed by the hour. An accompanist, employed by the hour, aids the physical work at all of the grounds where music is needed. A mechanic does repair work at all the grounds, erects apparatus at new grounds and performs various odd services. Neat gray uniforms are worn by men and women directors. All men employed in the department must be non-smokers, or give up the habit if acquired, for the sake of consistent example to the boys.

Twice a month "play morning" is held, when the entire staff

meets to practice games and talk over the work of the grounds. Once a month the staff, the volunteer workers and the commission meet at one of the centers for supper and evening conference, with city officials, educators and others interested in the work as frequent guests.

The staff is a splendid set of educated young men and young women, who are vitally interested in their work and full of the spirit of service. They are educators of children, not mere caretakers of property. Their salaries are not yet on a par with those of school circles, but in time they surely will be, for having a right director is probably 90 per cent. of a playground's effective service to a community, letting 10 per cent. represent the equipment. Quite a number of young women and a few men have volunteered their services for leading clubs and assisting on playgrounds at certain hours. This is a very helpful and pleasant feature. It is difficult to find trained directors; but the University of California has recently created a special course to fit men and women for this work, and Stanford University has also made a move in this direction. In time, it is hoped, the scarcity of trained workers on the Pacific coast may be relieved.

The superintendent has aided many schools and institutions with plans for playgrounds, and his advice is continually sought. Members of the commission and the superintendent are constantly called upon, both in and out of the city, to give addresses upon the subject of playgrounds. It is felt that the Los Angeles system has proven a great incentive to other cities of California to procure systems of their own. Many inquiries about the work are received, also, from other states.

From all sections of Los Angeles come clamors for local playgrounds, grounds within walking distance. The heartiest support is given to the movement by the people and the press. The other city departments are most helpful and generous toward this new municipal undertaking. The community is awakening to the fact that a city should seize its opportunity to make better citizens by providing recreation of the right kind and under proper auspices. Public conscience and common sense are becoming alive to the folly of sending boys eight years old and upward to reform schools to spend their minority at a cost of \$30 a month each, and this during a formative period when institutional life, at best, blights develop-

ment; whereas a well-supervised playground will direct the misused energy of dozens of boys into channels distinctly helpful to themselves and to the community.

Nor is the preventive side of the work alone appreciated. It is perceived that these centers are a constructive force in the community. Good health and good habits are promoted and the brain made clearer to act. Opportunity for expression in music, drama and other forms of art is given. The family may enjoy the centers as a whole; and this bond, where there is so much individualism in the American family, is a very important thing. Healthy, normal social intercourse is promoted, and this, again, is a matter of consequence in an American community, where, with mixture of nationalities and constant change of residence, there are often few opportunities for old-fashioned neighborliness or for social traditions to take root. Most important where the children are concerned is the fact that in playtime rather than in working hours is character formed; and here on the playground fair play must be constantly practiced, self-control constantly maintained. This is the very essence of democracy. For to know how to associate, how to cooperate with one's fellows is the foundation of our national form of government.

THE COLUMBIA PARK BOYS' CLUB, A UNIQUE PLAYGROUND

BY EUSTACE M. PEIXOTTO,
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Many persons in the country to-day are coming to realize that a boy's play, far from being a negligible quantity, is well nigh as important a factor in his life as his schooling. In school a boy learns the facts that fit him to take his place in the world, but it is largely in his relations with his playfellows that his character is formed. "A boy is known by the company he keeps," and is largely formed by it. It was with this idea in mind that Sidney S. Peixotto started his boys' club work in San Francisco fifteen years ago, the fruition of which is the Columbia Park Boys' Club, which is to-day perhaps the most unique and highly developed institution of its kind in the United States.

Instead of going at the problem of the city boy and his spare hours with the idea of what is "good for the boy" and what "he ought to do," the question in the Columbia Park Boys' Club has been first, what does the city boy want? What appeals to him? In other words the club aims to give healthful play of the kind boys really like, not the kind that people think they ought to like, but this play is so molded that its results are a vital character-building force in a boy's life.

That the club appeals to boys is shown by the fact that while many boys' clubs are seeking members, this club has its membership limited to the number that the workers can properly handle. There is also a large waiting list, taken care of by putting those wishing to join in a recruit gymnasium class to wait until there is a vacancy in the club.

Other than this limitation of numbers, there is no restriction as to admission to the club. Boys of any nationality or creed are at liberty to join, although they are not admitted, except in unusual cases, over the age of fourteen or under the age of eight.

No dues are charged by the club. The boys are expected to look upon it as they do their school; to repay what it gives them

in the same way that they are expected to repay the state for what it gives them in the way of education, by loyalty and good citizenship, or, translated in the terms of the club, to have the right club spirit and to be a "good club member," with all that that is taken to mean, including living up to a high standard of behavior.

A "good club member" must attend club regularly three times a week, once for his club night, once for gymnasium, and once for military drill or band practice. The latter two terms must be self-explanatory here, although much could be said about the work of the club along both of these lines. It has reached a high state of perfection. The words "club night" hardly convey an adequate idea to the uninitiated. The boys of the club are divided into groups of twenty-five each and thus formed into clubs, each meeting one night a week and having its own officers. These organizations last only for a year, when the members are redistributed. This saves cliques. The clubs carry on a tournament in all varieties of sport: baseball, basket-ball, track athletics, gymnasium competition and so on. The boys come to gymnasium in the same group as to their club night; that is, for example, the group that comes Tuesday to club comes Wednesday to gymnasium. On the club night proper, three activities are carried on. First comes the parliamentary meeting, then an hour's manual training work and then an impromptu act, the plot of which is made up beforehand but the dialogue of which develops as the play progresses.

These are the three main divisions of the club—club-night, gymnasium and drill—but in addition to these, two bands, a drum corps and a chorus are maintained. Considerable attention is devoted to athletics, the outgrowth of the club's athletic work being the Public Schools Athletic League of San Francisco, through which it has been the prime factor in introducing sanely regulated athletics into the schools of the city. This organization has its headquarters at the club and the bulk of the actual work is done by persons also connected with the club.

It may be said here in passing that the club has developed more and more into a school-boy's club, an adjunct to the public school. The effort has been constantly made to keep boys at school as long as possible and encourage them to do good work in school. The whole plan of the club is such that a school boy

finds it easy to be a regular member, while a boy that goes to work, misses many of its advantages.

The above is a brief resumé of the Columbia Park Boys' Club during the major part of the year in its San Francisco home, but one of the most important phases of the work is crowded into the seven weeks' summer vacation, when camps are in order. The summer walking trips of the club have become famous as a unique development of this institution. These trips were started some years ago by Major Peixotto without any particular thought as to what they would develop into. Mr. Peixotto was a great lover of tramping himself and every summer used to take a walking trip into the Sierra Nevada mountains in the region of Yosemite Valley. One year he invited two of the club boys to accompany him. The experiment pleased him so well that the next year he took five of them on a short walk from San Francisco to Monterey, about one hundred and twenty miles. The next year he increased the number to twelve and the walk was to Yosemite Valley.

During this year the chorus of the club had been developed to a high state of perfection and most of the best singers happened to be on this trip. When they were in Yosemite Valley it was suggested that the boys give a concert in the chapel, which was accordingly done. This gave Mr. Peixotto the idea that if he could work up this feature of giving a concert or other performance properly, he would be able to make some money, which would pay the expenses of such a trip and would enable him to take away a larger number of boys. Accordingly, when the next summer came, eighteen boys were included in the party and a regular vaudeville entertainment was planned. The objective point of the tour was Eureka, some four hundred miles north of San Francisco, and, in the lumber camps of Mendocino County and the towns along the route, the boys made a big success of the attempt. The next year the trip was to Los Angeles, five hundred miles to the south, and since that time the tour has alternated between these two points with a constantly increasing number of boys reaching fifty-five in 1908.

During the past year, Mr. Peixotto, encouraged by his success at home, took a group of forty boys, which had been on trips before, on an extended tour of Australia, which lasted from May, 1909, to February, 1910. It would be impossible to do more than to

mention here this remarkable undertaking, which he has carried through with great success. In the meantime, however, another group of boys was taken on the regular walking trip to Los Angeles and along every line of endeavor made fully as much of a success of it as those in former years, showing that such a trip is entirely feasible to any group of boys properly conducted.

These summer walking trips are great builders of bone and tissue. After a boy has walked five or six hundred miles, slept in the open air and eaten plain, wholesome and abundant food for seven weeks, he is in the pink of physical condition. It is a treat to see the lads of one of these parties when they return to the city after their vacation. Ruddy and tanned, with legs as hard as iron, they come back, glowing with memories of happy days and ready physically and mentally for a year of earnest work in school.

The trips are hard in some ways. On account of the theatrical performances, the tour must be made according to a schedule laid out beforehand, and the party must never be behind time. They must make the town they are due to show in, be the distance four or twenty-eight miles, the walks varied between these two extremes last summer, the average being from fifteen to twenty miles a day, and then they must parade on the main street, each boy of the party playing some musical instrument, then give a high-class entertainment that has to be kept up to the scratch, then to bed in the sleeping bags and up early the next morning to avoid the heat on the day's walk. Of course, the trip is planned so that occasional rests of a day or so are taken in the larger towns.

On the march, the boys are allowed to take their natural pace, only being required to keep between a leading and a trailing party, which are often two miles apart. The paraphernalia of the party, including sleeping bags, no tents are used, summer in California being rainless, a complete set of costumes for the performance, band instruments and cooking equipment is carried on two wagons. To get this all in such a small compass requires some scientific packing, but it can be done with a little planning. Food is bought as needed in the towns along the route. The boys do all their own cooking and other camp work.

The educational value of these trips can hardly be overestimated. For example, on the last summer walking trip to Los Angeles and San Diego, the boys covered 1,500 miles, 440 on foot

and the rest by railroad. They saw every city and town of importance in Southern California, visited nearly every one of California's historic missions and got an idea of the character and products of the country they passed through, such as cannot be acquired from car windows, and one that will make an impression that years of study would hardly give.

Besides the walking party, the club has maintained each year, for the past eight years, a stationary camp. This is a junior republic with a government worked out largely along original lines, to suit the needs of the camp, rather than in imitation of any form of actual government. At this camp, as on the walking trips, the boys do all the camp work and, this done, swim to their heart's content, play baseball and other games, and get up entertainments to give around the camp fire in the evening.

This summer work has become an extremely important factor in the club. The boys look forward to it with the greatest anticipation. They talk about last summer's camp until Christmas and then they begin to talk about the next year. With the three trips of the past year, one of forty-three to Australia, one of forty-four to Los Angeles and one of sixty to the stationary camp at Cloverdale, nearly every member that has been in club any length of time was taken away during the summer. Six weeks, day and night, with a boy, means knowing him as you can never know him in six years of ordinary club work, and it has been a tremendous factor in the success of the club as an organization for boys.

THE "HEIDE PARK" OF THE SOCIETY FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF THE COMMON WEAL
IN DRESDEN

BY DR. WILHELM BÖHMERT,
Bremen, Germany.

Dresden, the capital of the Kingdom of Saxony, is everywhere recognized as one of the prettiest cities of Europe. After the Elbe leaves Saxon, Switzerland, it flows through a broad, fertile valley in which the city of Dresden is situated. To the south are the gentle slopes of the Erzgebirge and to the north a rather steep ridge of hills, the last outliers of the diluvial glacial moraines. Of all the gardens and parks for which Dresden is famous, the "Grosser Garten" is rightly regarded as the most beautiful park in Germany. Nor must we neglect mentioning the art treasures to be found here. The most valuable adornment of the city is its extensive pine forests, which spread out over the above-mentioned ridge of hills in a northerly direction. The name given to this sandy strip of forest, which, by the way, does not extend as far as the city, has from time immemorial been the "Dresdener Heide," the Dresden pine forest. Not far from the well-known health resort, "Der weisse Hirsch," the white stag, and only a short distance from the city, the "Heide Park," forest park, of the "Verein Volkswohl" was established.

This Dresden Society is the result of the battle against alcoholism. The founders of the society started out on the principle that it was not enough to adopt rigorous measures against the misuse of spiritous liquors, but that it was just as important, probably more so, to remove the causes leading to alcoholism. The cause of this tendency to drink was found to lie principally in the sociability and conviviality of the masses. Therefore the society made the reform of the amusements of the people, particularly among the less well-to-do classes, its especial aim. To accomplish this end they established reform hotels in every part of the city. Here the patrons were not expected to spend money for liquor, and reading rooms and clubrooms were established for the guests.

These hotels have not only stood the test of time, but they are a paying investment. It was discovered very early that in order to be successful in their undertaking, it was necessary to include the younger generation in the general plan, for hale buoyancy of youth cannot fully develop in the narrow confines of a large city. To get these boys and girls, whose growth was stunted by their city life, back to nature was the problem which this society tried to solve.

The organizer of this new form of sociability was Judge Carl Böhmert, a man of high ideals in education. Shortly before his death, in 1898, he gave expression to his ideas on this subject in a short monograph. According to his plan, the little children were to be taken in charge, reared in the forest and thus gradually to grow up to manhood and womanhood thoroughly imbued with his ideas on the conviviality of life. On this basis he developed his "Knaben- und Mädchenwehren," boys' brigades and girls' brigades, his nature theater and many other regulations. Unfortunately, Judge Böhmert's early death prevented a realization of these plans, and there was no one to take his place. The "Kinderfahrten," the outings for children, were his work and they have survived him, and have become the model for numerous similar undertakings in other cities. This, then, is the reason for a more detailed presentation of his plan here.

In 1893 the Saxon government, which owned the aforesaid forest, gave the society six hectares (14.83 acres) of land as a playground for the children. It was decided to take a number of "fresh-air" children, *i. e.*, children who needed fresh air and recreation, of the poorer classes by street cars to "Waldschloesschen," the terminus of the car line and from there to walk to the forest reservation. At that time they still used horse cars. A hundred children could be taken on one trip, and for this the society paid 72 cents. The expenses of these trips were defrayed by popular subscription. The society estimated that one hundred children would present themselves for this outing. On the first day there were two hundred children, the second day four hundred, and soon from a thousand to twelve hundred. Dresden had, at that time, a population of 300,000. The society had never expected or anticipated such crowds of children and, therefore, they decided to limit the number of children to the children of members of the

society. In order to make membership possible for even the poorest, the membership fee was fixed at 12 cents for three months. In a short time the membership increased from 3000 to 5000, and the majority of members belonged to the poorer classes. Many took membership only for the summer months. Special arrangements were necessary to gather the children from the heart of the city and then to bring them back again. The parents could not accompany them on account of work or domestic duties. Therefore they took the children to the cars in the morning and met them there in the evening. When trolley cars supplanted the old horse cars, the society had to make different arrangements, because the trolley cars were too small. They, therefore, resolved to charter a boat, which took them to within a fifteen-minute walk of their destination. The children now gather on the banks of the Elbe, where a boat is in waiting, and here the parents meet the children in the evening. As has been said before, children can not go on these outings unless their parents are members of this society. Each member receives a membership card on which the names of parents and children and also their address are written. The regulations governing these outings are also printed on these cards. With these membership cards in their possession the children assemble on the afternoon before the following day's outing and receive their tickets, which are good for one trip only, and are of different color for each trip. The number of the district to which it belongs is also printed on the ticket. Such a ticket reads: "Society of the Commonweal, Dresden. This ticket entitles bearer to one trip to the pine forest. District 6. Boat leaves wharf: Dresden, 1.50 P. M.; Johannesstadt, 2.05 P.M. (During vacation, 20 minutes earlier.) Pin this ticket on your person so that it can be seen by everybody." Most children wear the ticket suspended on a ribbon hanging about the neck. As a rule, children may choose the district from which they wish to come. Furthermore, the children of each district are kept together as much as possible. There are 12 districts and 150 to 200 tickets are distributed in each district. The children range in age from 3 to 16 years. The number of children between 3 and 5 years old is very large. On the boat 12 older boys are given banners fastened to poles, and on these banners is the number of each district. As soon as the boat arrives at its destination, these 12 boys hasten on ahead and plant these banners in their respective places. The chil-

dren then disembark in order and stand behind the boy to whose district they belong. After they have all gathered under their respective banners they march in solid column to the forest, where the boys again take the stations assigned to them. The officials of the society, the lady teachers appointed by the society to oversee the games, and other young ladies accompany the children. In addition, there is in each division a number of boys and girls who have to attend to the good order of each division, and particularly to care for the little children. The return trip is regulated in exactly the same way.

On the average, 1600 children attend each outing. To these must be added hundreds of others who live nearby and come to the forest on foot, and acquaintances who accompany them on the boat or the trolley cars. Many private individuals and other societies send children of poor parents at their own expense, and thus there are frequently more than 2000 children in the forest at one time. There are about 25 outings during the year, from the middle of May to August. During the school year these excursions are held on Wednesday and Saturday, and during vacation on Tuesday, Thursday and Saturday. In 1905, 30,254 children were taken to the park and 32,383 from the park. Not a single child has ever been lost, such has been the extraordinarily careful supervision. The society pays the boat company 1.68 cents a head. The supervision of these children is in the hands of the officers of the society, one sanitary inspector, ten paid women as aids and three paid seminarians, young people from the normal school. The women aids receive for their afternoon's work 48 cents, the seminarians 36 cents. In addition there are many other women who accompany these outings, but who offer their services gratis, their only motive being their love for the children. One or two aids are assigned to each division. The boys of all the divisions are under the supervision of an experienced male teacher while they are playing on the playground.

This supervision is perfected furthermore by the boys and girls who are picked by the society to act as guards, and who are taken from the higher classes in school.

Each such boy has a tin shield and each girl wears a red band on her arm with the number of the division on it. The children take great pride in this mark of distinction. In this way

a fine *esprit de corps* has been formed and serves as a bond between the children after they have grown up. The society nurtures this spirit as much as possible and arranges special trips during the year, giving them a plot of ground in which to lay out a garden, etc. Each of the boys and girls who serve as guards has also a special position as attendant in the kitchen, at play, at exercise, or at books; the girls as nursemaids, attending to the sewing and to the playing. Again, the most capable of the boys are picked out and they serve as sanitary inspectors and are given special instruction. The 15 acres which were originally given by the state are divided into 12 sections, one for each of the 12 districts of the city. In addition, the society leased 56.8 acres more of the forest, which are used as playground. A large building has also been erected on it. In each section of the original grant there is a log hut. The provisions brought by the children, as well as wraps, umbrellas, etc., are kept in these log huts. These houses also serve as a protection in case of showers. After the children have surrendered their milk checks, which they buy at $1\frac{1}{4}$ cents each, they go to the various sections of the park. The smallest children play in sand heaps, under the supervision of the girls before mentioned, the rest of them play all sorts of games and take exercise of all kinds under the direction of the girl aids. The larger boys and girls are under the eye of the teacher and they go through their gymnastic drills. Still others gather in smaller groups, build castles of sand, etc. The patrons of the society have donated all sorts of playthings. The officials of the society make it a point to see that none of the children lose themselves in the woods. In addition the entire park is enclosed in lattice work. Between four o'clock and five o'clock there is a general rest. Then an official informs the boat company by telephone how many children are to be taken home in the evening. Then they estimate how much milk will be needed, and when the children get there the milk wagon is already there. The larger boys appointed as guards collect the milk checks, give them to the milkman, who then hands out the milk in glasses in trays and the boys distribute them to their charges. In the meantime the children have seated themselves in their respective sections, having spread out their lunch, other boys collect the money for wheat bread, which is likewise given out at the same place as the milk. Some of the children bring with them bottles containing milk or coffee. Drink-

ing beer is prohibited. The glasses used are broken beer bottles, the broken edges of which were ground down at the glass works. These are very desirable and stand the test very well. After using, these glasses are washed in water containing sodium carbonate, rinsed and put on trays, and then put away until next time. Everything is done in a simple and practical way. The expenses are small and are more than covered by the income of the hotel (*wirtschaft*) of the park. It is obvious that these children become fond of this park and continue to visit it. Thus the park has become the chief meeting place of the city, and many parents go there so as to be near their children.

The society, as has been remarked before, fosters the care of children even after these children have grown up. The society assigned to the boys who were guards the care of the schoolyard in the park and these boys attend to the garden under proper supervision. The boys make trips frequently to the park at other times also. Furthermore, Judge Böhmert kept the boys of the guard throughout the rest of the year by arranging for them regular lessons in reading and elocution, by which they were prepared for the productions in the "Naturtheater." It turned out, however, that these productions in the theater drew the boys too much away from school, and they were given up later on. Now the boys meet twice a week, beginning in spring to work in the schoolgarden in the park, and at the same time are taught how to do things when the outings begin in May. The girls' guard also still assembles regularly from October to May on Wednesday afternoon from four to six to learn how to knit and sew, and how to do other work, and they also mend the towels and fix the utensils. While doing this instructive stories are read to them. The girls also learn games, especially charades, which stand them in good stead when the outings begin. At Christmas these boys and girls of the guard have a special vacation. The society bases its hopes on these boys and girls as much as it does on those who take part in these outings. Will they again find pleasure in these pastimes after they have once learned to know genuine pleasure in the sociability of the open air? The society hopes to build up through these boys and girls a better social atmosphere, expecting them to be pioneers in a good cause. This was the intention of the founder of the society. In this they have already partially succeeded. Some of them have already

grown up and they and their wives form the nuclei of the happy life which unfolds in summertime in this park of the masses. They are also collaborators in the cause for which the society stands, their children go on these outings and a new generation is already making itself felt.

The "Naturtheater" is also an important arrangement. On one side of the forest there is a loghouse, with a stage, and a square in front of it. In front of this house rude benches are erected, which reach up the gently sloping side of the valley. So there is room here for 2000 persons. The acoustics are excellent. In this theater popular plays are frequently given, usually on Sunday, but sometimes also on Wednesday afternoon. Originally these plays were arranged by the boys of the guard, but this was given up later on for pedagogical reasons. Now it is the young people who win their first laurels on the stage of this open-air theater (Naturtheater). Among these there are many former members of the boys' and girls' guard. The plays given are planned to serve as an introduction to the drama, but at the same time serve as a form of entertainment for those who visit the park. Admission fees are charged, 5 cents for members of the society, 2½ cents for children and 7½ cents for non-members. Since 1904 dramatic societies have given productions there, as have also professional actors. The sense and feeling for art, simple and yet true to life, is to be rescued through these attempts. Unfortunately, there is still a great lack of proper material. "Wallenstein's Lager" and Schiller's "Wilhelm Tell" were given with great applause. An opera, "Preciosa," was also successfully rendered. Thus the much-ridiculed open-air theater has been successful after all, it has been more than this, it left a balance in the treasury of the society. For several years past this open-air theater has been used also for song recitals by children. Choirs from the schools sing their jolly songs here, old as well as new, and the fond parents of the performers, as also the members, listen attentively to the efforts of their children. Since 1905 religious services have been also held in the park, and on May 23d, of that year, more than 2000 persons listened devoutly to a stirring sermon.

In conclusion, it should be noted that at the present time many public festivals are also held here. The large playground, the open-air theatre and the spacious house of the society are admirably

adapted to these festivals. It is true, bottled near-beer is sold in the building, but every other spiritous liquor is forbidden, and the majority of the people have accustomed themselves not to drink any intoxicating liquors. So we can see a new spirit gradually getting a foothold in the national consciousness. On August 23, 1909, the eightieth birthday of the founder of the society, one of the prettiest celebrations, was held here. On this occasion more than 4000 children gathered in festal array on the playground and did homage to the founder of the society.

Thus the forest park of the Society for the Commonweal in Dresden represents a grand and successful experiment to organize the recreation of the children of the masses on a firm, cheerful basis and to reform popular amusements as a whole. In 1906, the society published a well-illustrated report of its work, under the title: *Volkswohlfahrt und Volksgeselligkeit nach den Erfahrungen des Dresdner Vereins Volkswohl*. This was published by A. V. Böhmert, Dresden.

BOOK DEPARTMENT

NOTES

Abbott, Edith. *Women in Industry.* Pp. xxii, 408. Price, \$2.00. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1909.

The title is misleading, for the book deals not with women in industry, but with the history of the industrial activity of women in the United States. No attempt whatever is made to discuss the present problems connected with women in industry. There is no reference to legislation, nor to the conditions under which women work. The book, however, is exceedingly valuable in establishing beyond question two important points and replacing two threadbare theories. In the first place, the author proves that men alone were not the first in the factory system in the United States, for, in the earliest factories, women employees played a leading part. In the second place, she shows that women have played an exceedingly important part in industry from the beginning of the nineteenth century, and, therefore, the general statement that women have been coming into industry only recently is unfounded. The book is ably written, with copious references to source material, and presents in a forceful manner a new view of the historical significance of women in industry.

Abbott, F. F. *Society and Politics in Ancient Rome.* Pp. x, 267. Price, \$1.25. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

A collection of essays on various phases of Roman social life. Excellent from a literary standpoint and illustrative of social conditions and public questions in Rome. Should be particularly interesting to any student of the classics.

Aveling, H. F., and others. *The History Sheet or Case-Paper System.* Pp. xii, 167. Price, 2s. London: P. S. King & Son, 1909.

The History Sheet or Case-Paper System is a little book containing five papers read at Poor Law Conferences in 1903, 1904 and 1907, with an introduction by Sir William Chance and a few appendices. The subject, which may not be obvious to a casual American reader of the title, is the advantage of keeping records of applicants for relief in such a way as to have the history of each one accessible to the relieving officer.

It appears that the usual method consists in merely entering applications in a book in chronological order, and "when this book is not indexed it depends entirely upon the memory of the relieving officer how much of the applicant's past history is brought before the guardians. When a new relieving officer succeeds to the work, the cases to him are all new."

The argument for the superiority of a method by which a continuous

record is kept of each applicant and his family is necessarily elementary. The most interesting features of the book are the apparent absence of all difficulty in distinguishing between the "deserving" and "undeserving" poor; the citation of stories with quite a different application from the one which seems to us most patent; and the disposition to see, in evidences that pauperism is "hereditary," merely an interesting historical fact rather than a commentary on the way in which the fathers and grandfathers of the present generation of "paupers" have been treated.

Barnett, G. E. *The Printers—A Study in American Trade Unionism.* Pp. vii, 387. Price, \$1.50. Cambridge, Mass.: American Economic Association, 1909.

This is a work of unusual interest. In the words of the author, it aims "to give a complete description of an American trade union." It is a study in connected form of the history, the structure, the activities, and the policy of the American typographical unions—in effect—of the International Typographical Union. A fair, impartial, and restrained mode of treatment characterizes the whole book—the author has been content to *describe*, he skillfully avoids even the appearance of bias or interpretation. The technique of the trade has been dealt with in an admirable manner, and he has eluded for himself and his readers most of those pitfalls which lie in the technical terms of the quasi-mechanical printing trade.

The historical method has been followed, with free and full quotation from official papers and from hitherto unpublished records of the International Union. The work divides itself naturally into three parts—History and Government, Insurance and Trade Regulations, The Enforcement of Trade Regulations. The greatest interest centers easily about the trade regulations and the various means and policies adopted from time to time with a view to enforcing them. He fully describes the truly remarkable way in which labor-saving devices and machines have been introduced into the trade and assimilated without seriously disorganizing it. In that chapter in which he has dealt with the problem of irregularity of employment, the cohesive power and fraternal spirit of the union is seen at its best. To the work is appended a fairly complete bibliography, some copies of the minutes of early organizations, and a tabulation of the number and membership of the local unions of the International from 1853 to the present time.

Bellom, M. *Les Lois d'Assurance Ouvrière à l'Etranger.* Pp. 588. Price, 15f. Paris: A. Rousseau, 1909.

The book contains a compilation of European laws relating to sickness, accidents and invalidity. Extracts are given together with the latest amendments to the laws of Germany, Denmark, Hungary, Belgium, Russia, Spain, Italy and Switzerland. The book should prove of value to students of insurance legislation.

Biggle, J. *Biggle Garden Book.* Pp. 184. Price, 50 cents. Philadelphia: W. Atkinson Company.

Bryce, James. *The Hindrances to Good Citizenship.* Pp. 138. Price, \$1.15.

New Haven: Yale University Press, 1909.

Indolence explains our large "stay-at-home vote." It is the most common failing of the American elector. Less widely felt is the influence of selfish personal interest, most men easily convince themselves that what is for their interest is for the public interest—hence the protective tariff, corruption in public contracts and the corrupt use of money in elections. The influence of personal advantage is the most corrupting in present-day politics. It is a problem that becomes of increasing importance as the wealth of nations increases, especially where increased wealth tends to bring with it an increase of class distinctions. The surest way to better political conditions is to educate the electors to a greater civic interest. There are also mechanical changes which can be of help, such as proportional representation, the initiative and referendum and laws regulating lobbying, the primaries and the elections. Yet it is from the heart and will of the citizen that all real and lasting improvements must proceed. All that Mr. Bryce writes is forceful and clear. These four lectures will be highly appreciated by all who sympathize with his judicial but still optimistic viewpoint.

Cabot, R. C. *Social Service and the Art of Healing.* Pp. ix, 192. Price,

\$1.00. New York: Moffat, Yard & Co., 1909.

This admirable little volume is written "to exemplify three forms of team work," i. e., the team work of doctor and social worker, of doctor and patient, and of doctor and the educator, the psychologist, the minister and the philanthropist. It describes the changes whereby medical, social and educational work are being drawn together for the good of the community. The doctor must become an educator. "Public health and the extermination of disease, that most fruitful cause of poverty, of misery, and of crime, are the ideals for which doctors and social workers are joining hands to-day." Vice, ignorance, overcrowding, sweatshops and poverty give the key to much of the sickness; on the other hand, poor nutrition, physical defects, alcoholism, tuberculosis and accidents give to the social worker the reason for much of the poverty, shiftlessness, vice and crime with which he must cope. Team work is necessary. The educator is realizing that he cannot cope with his problems alone. To neutralize the evils of a compulsory school requirement, the authorities are compelled to provide physical tests, school nurses, and medical attendance. Again, team work is required.

Dr. Cabot, at a recent conference on social service in the hospitals, held in New York, declared that at least two-fifths of the patients treated at the hospital and the hospital dispensary need more than mere medical or surgical care. This is the reason that eight trained social workers have been added to the staff of the Massachusetts General Hospital, in which Dr. Cabot is an assistant visiting physician.

Carpenter, C. W. *Profit-Making in Shop and Factory Management.* Pp.

146. New York: Engineering Magazine.

Persons in a position to know whereof they speak are quite sure that there

is astonishing disorganization in manufacturing industry. Several books have been lately written telling how this disorganization may be eradicated and replaced by order and method. Of this class is this book by Mr. Carpenter, present president of the Herring, Hall, Marvin Safe Company, and late president of the National Cash Register Company, which has been noted throughout the country as an exponent of excellent treatment of its employees. The book describes the actual methods which he has put into operation.

Carson, W. E. *Mexico.* Pp. xi, 439. Price, \$2.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1909.

Cohen, J. E. *Socialism for Students.* Pp. 153. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Company, 1910.

In spite of occasional dogmatic assertions and misstatements of the "other side," this little book is a clear and serviceable presentation of socialism for non-socialists.

Colby, F. M. (Ed.). *International Year Book.* Pp. 776. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1909.

The new International Year Book's compendium of the world's progress for the year 1908, was issued early in 1909, and brings down to date a large number of subjects. The list of contributors is large, and the treatment of many questions in which there is rapid progress seems to be thoroughly up to date and of such a character as to make the book very desirable for any well equipped library.

Curtin, J. A. *A Journey in Southern Siberia.* Price, \$3.00. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1909.

Davenport, E. *Education for Efficiency.* Pp. v, 184. Price, \$1.00. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1909.

In this little volume the author enthusiastically advocates universal education in its literal sense. But if education becomes truly universal, objectors argue, the washerwoman's daughter will not return to the tub, nor the ditcher's son to the ditch; we will have an army of officers, but no privates to do the fighting. The author answers this argument by showing that education of the right sort does not educate away from industry and the common walks of life. Merely admitting the "masses" to school does not constitute universal education, the schools must be actively fitted and adapted to the "masses."

Having demonstrated that industrial or vocational education is necessary, the author throws the whole weight of his influence against the establishment of separate industrial schools. Such schools train the operative rather than educate the citizen; they lose in breadth more than they gain in directness. But if the high schools delay longer in adding industrial courses, the industrial people will secede, and separate trade schools will be established to the permanent detriment of our system. The latter part of the book show how agriculture, at least, may make its way into existing schools without detriment to other courses, but vastly to their advantage.

Dearle, N. B. *Problems of Unemployment in the London Building Trades.*

Pp. xix, 195. Price, 3/6. London: Dent & Co.

The author holds that changes in the demand for labor in the form of cyclical or trade depressions, seasonal and temporary changes over periods of less than a year, together with the failure to adjust the supply of labor to the demand for it, and the defects of "human nature," are responsible for unemployment as it appears in the London building trades. After a chapter carefully analyzing the extent of the building trades in London a discussion follows of the variations due to changes in business conditions over long periods of years. There is also an excellent chart showing these variations for the industries of London at large and for the building trades. According to this chart, the worst conditions in the recorded history of the trade have prevailed since 1900. Never before was unemployment so serious nor trade depression so prevalent.

After devoting an intervening chapter to a statement of the condition of the master builders, who, it is maintained, are short of work, the author further discusses and illustrates variations in unemployment and seasonal unemployment. The general, short irregularities in employment are largely due to the contract system of work, which does not insure stability for any one employer.

In discussing the remedies heretofore adopted for unemployment the author proposes first that the scope of trade union organization be made more general, and second, that a system of labor exchanges be provided. The analysis of the working conditions presented in the first part of the book is most excellent, but the remedies proposed seem to the writer superficial.

Dole, C. F. *The Ethics of Progress.* Pp. vii, 398. Price, \$1.50. New York: T. Y. Crowell & Co., 1909.

Fisher, Irving. *Report on National Vitality—Its Wastes and Conservation.*

Pp. viii, 138. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1909.

This pamphlet is a carefully prepared statistical brief dealing with the length of life and the factors which influence it; with the hindrance which low national vitality is to the development of national efficiency, and with personal, semi-public and state hygiene, the introduction of which will insure length of life and higher industrial efficiency. The report is a strong presentation of the possibilities of human life, and the opportunity which exists for its development and prolongation through sanitation, hygiene and the awakening of the social conscience. While not intended for the general public, the pamphlet will assuredly attract the attention and win the hearty commendation and co-operation of all scholars, students and specialists in this and kindred fields, and will lead to an added emphasis being laid upon the great importance of the conservation of national vitality.

Garcia, G. Leona Vicario. *Heroína Insurgente.* Pp. 210. Mexico: Museo Nacional de Arqueología, Historia y Etnología, 1910.

Students of Latin-American history owe a heavy debt of gratitude to the

indefatigable Director of the Mexican National Museum of Archaeology, History and Ethnology, Dr. Genaro Garcia. Not content with the excellent series of documents illustrative of Mexican colonial and constitutional history, Dr. Garcia is publishing a number of monographic studies dealing with notable figures in the history of Mexican independence. In this work on Leona Vicario the author has given us an account of the activities of one of the few women who figured in the revolutionary movement against Spain. As part of the work the author has reprinted a number of important documents relating to the events immediately preceding and following the declaration of Mexican independence.

Gibson, Thomas. *The Cycles of Speculation.* Pp. 187. Price, \$1.50. New York: Moody Corporation.

This little volume is supplementary to Mr. Gibson's earlier book, "The Pitfalls of Speculation" and deals with special problems of speculation rather than with the entire field. Briefly but concisely the author deals with those movements of overspeculation and depression, or "cycles of speculation," which periodically occur. The causes of these occurrences are explained, and a complete cycle all the way from the crest of prosperity to the ebb of depression and return is traced. Cycles of stock, grain and cotton speculation are separately treated.

In addition, numerous allied matters are discussed, among them being the effect of the increased gold supply, of money conditions, and of political conditions and crops. There is a brief chapter on "undigested securities," another on the indications of crises, the importance of fixed charges, the bank statement, puts and calls, and how to compute the value of rights. The problems discussed are such as frequently confront the speculator and investor as perplexing stumbling blocks.

Gordon, H. L. *The Modern Mother.* Pp. x, 278. Price, \$2.00. New York: R. F. Fenno & Co.

The author presents in popular language a thorough, scientific statement of the proper care which should be afforded a normal girl from infancy to motherhood. The work is sane, able, direct and well illustrated. The book represents a notable step in advance in the direction of rational education for girlhood and motherhood. The modern home is not prepared to furnish such education; the school does not furnish it, and the need for books of this character is most urgent.

Grice, Mary V. *Home and School United in Widening Circles of Inspiration and Service.* Pp. 154. Price, 60 cents. Philadelphia: Christopher Sower Company, 1909.

With notes of introduction and commendation from Commissioner of Education Brown, Martin C. Brumbaugh, Superintendent of Schools in Philadelphia, and Governor Hughes, of New York, Mrs. Grice here presents a working plan for linking the home, the school, the community and the nation. The book is written in an interesting way. The author has gone into suffi-

cient technical detail on the formation of home and school associations to make the book of great value to those planning such associations.

Griggs, E. H. *Human Equipment, Its Use and Abuse.* Pp. 73. Price, 50 cents. New York: B. W. Huebsch, 1909.

Guinness, G. *Peru: Its Story, People and Religion.* Pp. xxiv, 438. Price, \$2.50. New York: F. H. Revell Company, 1909

Miss Guinness has here set forth her personal experiences in missionary work in Peru. She has done a real service in describing minutely the routine of her daily visits to the sick and infirm, and in pointing out the many obstacles to winning the confidence of the natives. The plain, straightforward recital gives us some idea of the seemingly hopeless misery of the lower classes. Instead of succumbing to the temptation of broad generalization, the author has wisely limited herself to the recital of her personal experiences in Cuzco, Arequipa, Lima and other cities.

There has been so little attempt to study social conditions in any of the Latin-American countries that students of the subject are thankful for every contribution, for it is becoming increasingly clear that the political systems of these countries cannot be understood until we have made a careful study of their social organization.

This work of Miss Guinness would be of far greater value if she had been able to restrain her strong evangelical tendencies. Throughout the work there is a spirit, not only of criticism, but of bitter opposition to the influence of the Catholic Church. Whenever approaching this phase of the subject the author loses all sense of proportion. She makes no attempt to fathom the historical antecedents which explain the present situation. The individual instances of injustice and oppression have aroused her feelings of resentment to a point which makes this portion of her book, while quite as interesting, far less valuable than her description of social conditions; however, in spite of this, the book will be welcomed by those interested in Latin-American affairs.

Hillier, A. P. *The Commonwealth—A Study of the Federal System of Political Economy.* Pp. xii, 162. Price, \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

Knight, E. F. *The Awakening of Turkey.* Pp. x, 355. Price, \$3.00. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1909.

To write contemporary history is always a difficult task. The story of the Turkish Revolution is so bound up with plot and counterplot that only one who has become familiar with all the local conditions by personal experience can hope to give a picture of the complicated tangle. Mr. Knight's experience as a war correspondent acquainted with Turkey for thirty years has supplied him with material available to but few writers. He has had access through his friends among the Young Turks to documents and diaries which enable him to trace the revolutionary movement from the beginnings in Geneva to the present time.

The Turks are the most misunderstood of peoples. Even the massacres attributed to them were committed in greater part by wild frontier tribes, not by the Turks themselves. The instigators were the officers under the Hamidian regime, which in fact, oppressed all classes and by its far-reaching system of espionage spread terror among Mohammedans and Christians alike. In European Turkey also "it needs a strong rule to keep the rival Christian sects from cutting each other's throats—the Turks can provide that rule."

The Sultan's policy of plunder, taken with the conflicting interests of those who hope to become Turkey's heirs, has brought the country to the verge of financial ruin, from which only a thorough-going revolution and the development of the new national spirit can save it. The program of the Young Turks—a strong army, the development of the national resources, reform in taxation and the introduction of responsible representative government—is an extensive one; so extensive that only with great care can it escape failure. Reactionary elements are bound to make the experiment difficult, but Mr. Knight believes it will succeed.

Lanciani, R. *Wanderings in the Roman Campagna.* Pp. xiii, 378. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1909.

Lichtenberger, James P. *Divorce—A Study in Social Causation.* Pp. 230. Price, \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

The author examines divorce as a social phenomenon and aims to explain the rationale of our present changing divorce rates. He gives an historical review of the status of divorce and includes representative peoples of both Asiatic and Western civilizations. The statistics of divorce are largely based on the recent census report on that subject. New and interesting tables are, however, abstracted from the census data. The attitude of the Protestant denominations toward the problem, the work of the National Congress on Divorce, legislation and its effect on the increase of divorce, and the economic, social and political conditions which induce its development are ably handled by the author. Special emphasis is laid upon the last subject. The transition from a one-sided matrimonial tie to mutually acceptable monogamic relations is logically accompanied by the severance of ill-formed marital bonds. The emergence of woman from a servile condition to one of measurable independence has made divorce a "cost of progress," but will eventually make marriage an enduring spiritual bond because of the greater equality of rights and the wider range of woman's choice. The divorce era should be followed by one of more stable family relations.

The thesis is strongly written and is highly commendable for its unbiased explanation of the divorce phenomenon. Through a better understanding of the place of divorce in this transition period, much ignorant criticism would be silenced and the way opened for the correction of the abuses that inevitably accompany an ill-directed movement.

Lloyd, H. D. *Men, The Workers.* Pp. viii, 280. Price, \$1.50. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1909.

Marden, P. S. *Travels in Spain.* Pp. vii, 434. Price, \$3.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1909.

Books of travel are often little more than diaries, which are of great interest only to the one whose experiences they record. Mr. Marden's work is not of this class. He has a keen appreciation of the picturesque and ability to make what he sees interesting to the reader. There is not a dull page in the book. The journey over which we are taken touches most of the historic monuments of the most composite country of Europe. Entry is made by the south, whence the chief cities up to Burgos, then east to Barcelona, are visited. This omits the southeast coast cities and the Basque provinces, but covers all other points of importance. A chapter on Tangiers hardly needs an apology for its insertion, but for some reason Gibraltar, right on the line of travel, is omitted.

Throughout the journey emphasis is placed on art and architecture. The life of the people is touched upon only occasionally; in fact, Mr. Marden admits that his Spanish is confined to a few phrases, which make it impossible for him to get into real touch with the Spaniard as well as with his country. In justice to Spain also it should be said that the unpleasant features, especially the beggars, are not quite so prominent a part of the national life as they appear to have been in the author's experience. The illustrations and type work of the book are excellent. This is especially true of the pictures of the less known cities, such as Ronda and Segovia—points too often neglected by the hurried tourist.

Modern Corporation Accounting, Documents, Blanks, Etc. Chicago: Powers & Lyons, 1909.

Morawetz, V. *Banking and Currency Problems in the United States.* Pp. 119. Price, \$1.00. New York: North American Publishing Company, 1909.

Oppenheim, L. *International Incidents for Discussion in Conversation Classes.* Pp. xi, 129. Price, \$1.00. Cambridge: University Press, 1909.

Palsito, V. H. (Ed.) *Minutes of the Commissioners for Detecting and Defeating Conspiracies in the State of New York.* 2 vols. Pp. 836. Albany: State of New York, 1909.

This is an excellent printing of the laws passed by New York to repress conspiracies against the state by the loyalists during the Revolution. The activities of the commissioners who were appointed to carry out the laws are the special subject of the volumes. The minutes of their meetings at Albany are presented *in extenso* and their entire work is presented in a summarized form. There is no attempt to give an estimate of the value of the work done by them, but the documents are presented as material for the use of the historian. The editor is to be congratulated upon the excellent character of the work he has done in making the documents—the most important of which existed heretofore only in manuscript—available to the public.

Parsons, P. A. *Responsibility for Crime.* Pp. 194. Price, \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

This is a thesis embodying the results of personal investigations and of the study of the conclusions of eminent criminologists, and presenting independent theories and principles. For penological purposes, the author reduces the six different classes of criminals to two, and in his formula for crime he endeavors to express in a more precise way the vaguely known relations of personality and external stimuli to crime.

Society is responsible for crime, but a large proportion of criminals are accounted for through hereditary influences in the form of a species of atavism. Alcoholism instead of standing in causal relations to crime is largely the concomitant effect of hereditary weakness. This question is, however, discussed too briefly to be given adequate treatment. Environment is a minor factor and its function is "to give heredity full sway."

The prison and the jury system are aptly criticised and the question of restitution is discussed. The complete restitution advocated by the author would, however, impose certain hardships which at best are of questionable expediency. The extermination of mental and moral defectives should be accomplished by the prevention of their propagation. Existing conditions in regard to method and procedure are criticised not for purpose of wanton destruction, but in order that substitutes may be provided before disaster shall overtake the social system.

The student would feel better satisfied if a constructive program had been more elaborately outlined. The book, however, is written in comparatively popular language, and, it is hoped, will spread the principles which are advocated. Unfortunately the thesis did not undergo the searching criticism of some rhetorician who might have suggested numerous improvements in expression. On the other hand, the monograph has much intrinsic merit.

Peabody, F. G. *The Approach to the Social Question.* Pp. vii, 210. Price, \$1.50. New York: Macmillan Company, 1909.

"Social stability, like the City of God, must have foundations. Social navigation needs a chart of the course. Much social teaching shows the channel by the wrecks of ventures which have missed it." Hence in the midst of the social unrest of our time, Professor Peabody urges that time will be gained and real progress will be facilitated "in turning briefly from the fascinating occupation of solving the social question to the more modest task of understanding the social question." It is the quest for elements of certainty in the social situation which the writer pursues in this volume. His method is through philosophy to seek to comprehend the unity of the subject; to discover the foundations.

Again, "like the City of God in the Book of Revelation, the social question lies four-square, and toward each front leads a well-traveled road." "The first of these approaches is by the way of social science; the second is by the way of sociology; the third is by the way of economics; the fourth is by the way of ethics." Chapters are devoted to the consideration of the insight to be gained from each approach. The last chapter is devoted to the identification of the spirit and aim of social science and social religion.

Few recent volumes exhibit such broad and sympathetic insight into the dominant spirit of the times. The book cannot fail to be of great value, especially to that large group of persons who have "the zeal of God" for social betterment and who lack only the "knowledge" to make them efficient workmen in the field of social reform.

Rankin, G. A. *An American Transportation System.* Pp. xv, 464. Price, \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1909.

Rhodes, J. F. *Historical Essays.* Pp. viii, 346. Price, \$2.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1909.

This is a collection of eighteen essays, all but three of which have been published elsewhere. There is a distinct unity to the collection, as all but four essays deal with historical method or with individual historians. As a matter of fact, all these fourteen essays treat of historical writers, for Mr. Rhodes is never abstract or analytical, but always deduces his principles of the science from a study of the exponents of the art. Each essay brings cumulative evidence of the keen interest of Mr. Rhodes in personality, and his capacity of combining warm affection with candid criticism. They therefore afford a criterion for judging his historical work. For example, it is interesting to note the weight he attaches to opinion, a class of fact now so generally disregarded. In spite of the value of his plain and sensible estimates of other historians, the greatest interest is in those essays in which he particularly reveals his own methods. These are: "Newspapers as Historical Sources," "The Profession of Historians," "Who Burned Columbia" and "Edward Gaylord Bourne."

Richardson, N. A. *Industrial Problems.* Pp. 229. Price, \$1.00. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co., 1910.

The "Problems" and "Vital Topics" of modern society are discussed at some length, though without any definite scientific viewpoint other than that furnished by a cursory knowledge of Marxian Socialism. The book contains a large number of isolated cases of individual and corporate wrongdoing. Concentration of wealth, corruption, the unemployed, panics, the work of women and children, degeneracy and several other like topics are treated in separate chapters, but in no case is the material satisfactory. The author's economic theories are not substantiated nor are they generally accepted, and his facts, while in some cases derived from good sources, are often not adequately presented.

Riis, Jacob A. *The Old Town.* Pp. xiv, 269. Price, \$2.00. New York: Macmillan Company, 1909.

The old town is Ribe, in Denmark, where the author was born and where he spent his boyhood. He writes delightfully about the curious old customs and his quaint townsfolk, though he often lays the same stress upon important facts and unimportant details. There is much sympathy and some humor in his descriptions. The town of Ribe dates back a thousand years and had played its part in history, but at the time of which Mr. Riis writes it was

slumbering undisturbed by the outside world. The storks built their nests on the roofs of the houses, the watchman went his rounds announcing the time of night by a special song for each hour. The description of the fairs, the Christmas customs and boyish pranks claim our interest. Throughout we catch glimpses of the sweet and simple home life which Mr. Riis knew. The book is dedicated "to all who love the old town and the old friends," but everyone can read and enjoy it. Not the least attractive feature of the book are the sympathetic illustrations by W. T. Benda.

Robbins, E. Clyde (compiled by). *Selected Articles on Commission Plan of Municipal Government*. Pp. ix, 168. Price, \$1.00. Minneapolis: H. W. Wilson Company, 1909.

In bringing together the views of city officials and students of municipal government on the operation of the commission system, Mr. Robbins has done a real service, not only to those who are preparing briefs and debates on this subject, but also to the undergraduate student of municipal affairs. The operation of this new system of municipal organization is attracting attention throughout the United States, and there is a movement of public opinion distinctly favorable to its adoption. At the present time the public is seeking light on the subject, and it is through compilations such as are presented in this little volume that the enlightenment of public opinion will be effected.

Roeder, F. *Die Naturalienbeschaffung für den Verpflegungsbedarf des bayerischen Heeres*. Pp. 117. Berlin: J. G. Cotta, 1909.

Schapiro, J. S. *Social Reform and the Reformation*. Pp. 160. Price, \$1.25. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

This monograph aims to "present some of the neglected economic aspects of the Lutheran revolt." It is difficult, however, to believe that this hope has been adequately accomplished. As independent subjects the various chapters present interesting and valuable material. As interrelated parts of a connected thesis, the purpose of which is to show how economic influences helped to determine the Protestant reformation, they have failed to realize their ambition.

The monograph gives an account of the economic and legal conditions of Germany at the beginning of the sixteenth century. It gives an interesting sketch of the Peasants' Revolt and the attitude toward the latter taken by Luther. In company with other reformers he is shown to have opposed the demands of the peasant classes.

The remainder of the monograph is concerned with Schemes of Reform. The texts of several of the reform propositions, including the Twelve Articles of the Peasants' Revolt, are set forth in Part II, and form a portion of the body of the thesis. Each of the projects is briefly discussed, but their precise relation to the religious movement is not fully covered. The reader wishes that the subject had been as adequately treated as so ambitious a title would warrant.

Schenk, F. S. *The Sociology of the Bible.* Pp. 428. Price, \$1.50. New York: Reformed Church Publication Board, 1909.

The professor of practical theology in the seminary of the Reformed Church at New Brunswick, New Jersey, offers in this volume an interpretation of society which is quite unique. Dr. Schenk is well acquainted with modern writers and recognizes the value of their work. He sees also the great need of studying the society of the Israelites.

To the author the society of the Israelites was different from all others in that it started with a supernatural revelation of God, hence had entirely different development. Recognizing in theory the justification of higher criticism of the manuscripts of the Bible, he nevertheless concludes: "For the sociologist, therefore, whatever may be said of the theologian, the traditional view of the Bible is the easy view, and the higher criticism the difficult one." The method followed is, therefore, the very uncritical use of Biblical material, with the natural result that there is little evidence of the growth of social institutions. Whatever of cruelty existed in human relationships elsewhere was practically non-existent in Israel. The main chapters are devoted to The General Sociology of the Bible; The Kingdom of God or the Particular Society of the Bible; the Kingdom of God in the World.

There is a great opportunity as well as need for a real and thorough analysis of the social development reflected in the Bible. A different method, however, is needed.

Seligman, E. R. A. *Principles of Economics.* 4th edition. Pp. lii, 710. Price, \$2.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

The fourth edition of Professor Seligman's text-book is an enlargement of his earlier editions. The introduction, treating of fundamental concepts and the relation of economics to other sciences, has been given slight revision, but the same point of view is taken and the method of discussion is unchanged. The omission of any chapters on Public Finance is to be commended, for undoubtedly the problems of taxation and public expenditure are too complex to be treated in a brief way. The most valuable part of the book, aside from the logical arrangement of topics, is the highly systematized collection of valuable references and diagrams. These have been brought thoroughly up to date and afford efficient aid in the way of illustrative evidence. The closing chapter on "Poverty and Progress" is both prophetic and optimistic: the prophecy, one of a new and better industrial order; the optimism, that based on the growth of a new and healthy public opinion.

Silburn, P. A. *The Colonies and Imperial Defence.* Pp. vii, 360. Price, 6s. London: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

Spargo, John. *The Marx He Knew.* Pp. 86. Price, 50 cents. Chicago: Charles H. Kerr & Co., 1909.

This is a delightful little character study of the man, Marx. Its form, that of a conversation between an Old Comrade, a contemporary of Marx, and a

Young Comrade of the present day, has enabled the author to tell sympathetically the story of a remarkable career.

Stowell, E. C. *Consular Cases and Opinions.* Pp. xxxvi, 811. Washington, D. C.: John Byrne & Co., 1909.

In this volume Mr. Stowell has done a great service to students of international law, and has at the same time given us a work which will be of much value to every member of the consular service. The cases have been selected with great care and discrimination from both English and American sources. Of special value is the digest of opinions of the Attorney General of the United States on questions which have not and are not likely to be presented to any tribunal for adjudication. Mr. Stowell's book occupies a unique place in the literature of international law. Neither the British nor the continental jurists have offered to students of the subject a compilation of equal scientific and practical value.

Sullivan, J. J. *American Business Law.* Pp. xxi, 433. Price, \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1909.

Villiers-Wardell, J. *Spain of the Spanish.* Pp. xii, 264. Price, \$1.50. New York: Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

Unlike most books on Spain this is not a discussion of what the average traveler sees, but it is an attempt to discuss the most important of present-day Spanish activities. Prominence is given to the literary, artistic and general culture aspects of the national life. The material is fresh. The best chapters are on modern literature, the press and Catalonia. One is disappointed to find only a single short chapter on the commerce and industries of the peninsula. The varied provincial life which is so characteristic and so important a part of Spain is altogether unexploited. How the people live still remains for some other writer to show us. There are so many excellent books on the classic art of Spain, and upon its churches and monuments, that the space devoted to these subjects might well have been used to give a near view of the Spaniard himself.

Whetham, W. C., and Catharine D. *The Family and the Nation.* Pp. viii, 233. Price, \$2.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

The book is a scientific statement of the principles of eugenics with particular emphasis upon the question of heredity. The discussion of the decline in the birth rate does not show a thorough knowledge of the modern facts, nor is a satisfactory statement made of the causes of the decline. The distinct contribution which is made in the book is the popularized statement of the Mendelian laws of heredity. These laws are carefully analyzed and made unusually clear by means of charts and diagrams. Following the statement of the Mendelian laws is a thorough discussion of the inheritance of defect and ability. The authors are implicit followers of Francis Galton, holding that ability may be inherited as well as defect. They cite the cases of the judges of England, the Bach family and other well-known instances of transmitted ability, but they fail to show that the ability thus transmitted is the result of heredity alone. It may well arise

largely through the effects of early training. The authors are justified in concluding that ability may be transmitted through parenthood, but they fail to show that ability may be transmitted through heredity alone.

The work presents a valuable contribution to the field of eugenics in so far as it involves the Mendelian principles; but, like all works based upon the investigations of Galton, it very much overemphasizes the influence of heredity and underemphasizes, almost to the point of neglect, the influence of environment.

Woolston, H. B. *A Study of the Population of Manhattanville.* Pp. 159.

Price, \$1.25. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

Manhattanville, formerly an independent village, has been absorbed by New York City. It, however, retains certain characteristic conditions which, when properly pictured, give us a study of sociological value. The historical development of the village is followed by an analysis of the population in regard to race, nativity, age, sex and conjugal conditions. Under "Social Temper" the psychical traits and social qualities of the various nationalities are discussed and an attempt to classify them into various types of mind is made. The occupational groups, classification of laborers, wage conditions and other economic data are given, and some very interesting vital statistics are presented. Among these are the facts concerning the height, weight, lung capacity and strength of the pupils of two selected schools within the locality. A chapter on the movement of population is added.

The purpose of the monograph is to make such a survey of this increasingly cosmopolitan group as will make the formulation of a definite constructive program of social education and philanthropic work possible.

Yovanovitch, V. *The Near-Eastern Problem and the Pan-German Peril.*

Pp. 47. Price, 6d. London: Watts & Co., 1909.

Mr. Yovanovitch argues the cause of the Balkan peoples against Germany and Austria. He believes that Austria has been false to the agreements of the Conference of Berlin, and that in her foreign policy she has become little more than a German province. Germany's plans, it is insisted, are well laid for expansion toward the East. She wishes to become the heir to the "Sick Man of Europe," and by the control of Constantinople to dominate the future traffic between the East and West. Balkan peoples must unite to oppose her advance.

REVIEWS.

Addams, Jane. *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets.* Pp. 162. Price,

\$1.25. New York: Macmillan Company, 1909.

With a seriousness comparable to that exhibited in all her contributions to the literature of social betterment, Jane Addams has written this little volume on the subject of play. Who better than she, after her residence of twenty years in one of Chicago's most congested and cosmopolitan quarters, and after the building of Hull House, is fitted to voice the yearning of the city's youth for more normal life conditions? In her indictment of modern

industry, because of its greater interest in the amassing of money than the making of manhood, the spirit of Carlyle and Ruskin again finds expression.

In six short chapters—Youth in the City, The Wrecked Foundations of Domesticity, The Quest for Adventure, The House of Dreams, Youth in Industry and The Thirst for Righteousness—she has established a point of view at once sympathetic and optimistic which must characterize all efforts at improvement. The difficulties to be overcome are chiefly those of environment and are not to be found in the heart of the city youth. The book will do much good.

To the fascination of the theme the author has added the charm of elegance of style. It is a book which the reader will hesitate to put aside until the last page has been reached.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

University of Pennsylvania.

Baty, T. *International Law.* Pp. viii, 364. Price, \$2.75. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

Though the title indicates a general treatise, this book is really a series of chapters on sovereignty as the basis of international law. The author finds himself in agreement with but few of the current developments. His criticism is always sharp, his argument precise. The first chapters condemn the principle of obligatory arbitration. The idea of a Supreme Court of the World with a classification of powers as to rank is only "suitable material for undergraduates' essays in political science." Arbitration is a thing to be promoted by cultivating "the force of world-wide public opinion," not by any fanciful judiciary.

Each state must have absolute and equal independence. Its policy in the treatment of foreigners must be left entirely to its own will. All aliens are in a state not by right, but by sufferance. "Sentiment and treaties have gone too far in according a highly privileged position to foreigners." An extended review is then given of the cases involving the so-called rights of foreigners in residence. The criticisms are generally fair, but the author gives a wrong interpretation to the Caroline case. He intimates that the United States denied the right to invade in case of "overwhelming necessity." This is not true; the principle Webster wanted to establish was not individual responsibility for the acts committed, but the duty of the invading state to apologize for the violation of sovereignty, a duty the author recognizes, but which England in 1842 hesitated to admit. The latter chapters take up the cases where interference has taken place to vindicate violated individual rights. Pacific blockade is roundly condemned. It introduces "an element of anarchy into international affairs. . . . No nation can afford to weaken the principle that a state must be free within its borders." The principle of the equality of states should be preserved at all hazards. International relations should be improved by the "most cautious adjustment to the demands of public feeling," but any attempt to legislate a state into observance of rules for which it is not ready will prove disastrous. "Those

who dream of a United States of the World . . . would dethrone science and reason and . . . substitute . . . brute force.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Pennsylvania.

Butler, Elizabeth B. *Women and the Trades, Pittsburg, 1907-08.* Pp. 440.

Price, \$1.50. New York: Charities Publication Committee, 1909.

This volume, the first of that proposed series of six in which the findings of the Pittsburg Survey will be summarized and set forth for the Russell Sage Foundation, deals, sometimes minutely, at all times closely, with those outward aspects of race origins, occupations, environments, wages, and conditions of social life which appeared of moment and interest to the investigator. It is an inquiry relating to some twenty-two thousand women engaged in the food and tobacco industries, the laundries, the metal and glass and printing and garment trades, and other industries in the city of Pittsburg. Besides the matter of the actual inquiry, the book contains many illustrations, some notes upon the state restrictions upon working hours, an excellent bibliography and a very useful index, together with a large number of tables showing the distribution of the workers in trade groups, the industrial subdivisions of labor, the rates of wages in each group and trade, percentages, and the like, and also considerable data relative to the sanitary conditions of labor and living. These tabular comparisons form not the least part of the work and give evidence of the care and patience of the investigator. With this volume before us, it is now possible to glean some hint of the general methods and lines upon which this investigation has been conducted, and to anticipate somewhat the values which will attach to it. While as a whole the work can scarcely be said to add materially to what was already known in general terms within the trades either by implication or directly, it will have a very distinct value as a compilation, and as a basis for future investigations. It may very well be that in the completed series of investigations it will achieve a more definite place, with a greater co-ordination and more emphatic values. This book gives us at least a measure of the problem.

GEORGE D. HARTLEY.

New York.

Dealey, James Q. *Sociology.* Pp. 405. Price, \$1.50. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1909.

In this compact and comprehensive volume Professor Dealey has made, as he says in his preface, an "attempt to simplify the teachings of sociology and to show how they may be applied to social problems." He has before him always the thought that "civilization is made up of the sum total of achievements" either genetic or telic. The author does not mean that social groups always planned out their achievements. "They grew spontaneously, naturally, genetically and were determined by the particular needs and con-

ditions at the time. . . . Achievements came under the stress of material necessity or of a growing mentality seeking means of expression."

Professor Dealey aims to present in Part I the fundamental principles upon which any constructive policy should be based. In the first four chapters he discusses the Place of Sociology among the Sciences, Early Social Development, Achievement and Civilization and Social Psychology. In the following chapters of Part I, the development of social institutions, the family, the state, religion, morals and culture is traced from their beginnings.

But progress tends more and more toward conscious achievement. Having arrived at certain fundamental principles of association and development, the author shows how, with telic purpose, *society* may gradually eliminate ignorance, exploitation, pauperism, crime, intemperance and sexual immorality. Thus society may consciously "accelerate its rate of progress."

The book aims to present the sociological problem as a unit. Some may take issue with the author as to whether much that he has included in his treatment is really sociology at all. This is largely a matter of opinion. At least, he has given the material which seems most necessary for a student who is beginning the study of sociology. The broad field covered has made brevity of statement necessary, which may be regarded sometimes as almost dogmatic, and has precluded a wealth of illustration which must be supplied by the instructor who uses the book as a text. The need of an elementary text in sociology leads us cordially to welcome Professor Dealey's book into the field.

R. E. CHADDOCK.

University of Pennsylvania.

Eastman, F. M. *The Law of Taxation in Pennsylvania.* 2 vols. Pp. xlvii, 1100. Price, \$12.00. Newark: Soney & Sage, 1909.

Aside from the regular reports of the different states dealing with their individual fiscal affairs, little has been written on state and local taxation prior to 1900. Even at the present time the literature on this subject is more or less crudely arranged or limited in scope. It is therefore a matter of more than usual interest that this is a handy, concise reference to the working of taxation machinery in one of the largest and most prosperous commonwealths of the Union.

Excepting one or two topics, the field is thoroughly covered, including the details of assessment and collection, as well as the particular illustrations of various taxes from which the state derives revenue. The methods and powers of taxation of cities of the different classes receive individual attention. A noteworthy addition to the ordinary scope of the work is made by the insertion of a chapter on the Federal Corporation Tax, which is treated without peroration or explanation, in the same legal and analytic manner as the other subjects. Copious citations are appended and a satisfactory index. No attempt is made to theorize, nor does the style permit of argument. The work is a lucid digest of legislation, designed to aid primarily the lawyer and administrator. But to the layman and taxpayer as well it

should prove of value both as a careful compilation and as a much-needed source of information on the subject of taxation.

C. LINN SEILER.

University of Pennsylvania.

Enock, C. R. *Mexico.* Pp. xxxvi, 362. Price, \$3.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

This book on Mexico, its ancient and modern civilization, history and political conditions, topography and natural resources, industries and general development, marks a distinct advance over the author's work, "The Andes and the Amazon." While not attempting a detailed presentation of the history of Mexico, nor an exhaustive description of its political and social institutions, the author has given us an exceedingly readable summary of the historical development of the country, and has supplemented this with a vivid description of life in the rural districts and urban centers.

In his study of social conditions Mr. Enock has made a distinct contribution to the subject. His descriptions show clearly how difficult it is to appreciate the point of view of a people whose history, traditions and racial antecedents are totally different from our own. In many cases the author has wisely contented himself with a mere description of what he has seen without any attempt at interpretation.

In his final chapter the author makes some acute observations on the relation of the United States to the Latin-American countries. He points out that the Monroe Doctrine, which was at first looked upon as a guarantee of Latin-American independence, is now viewed with some distrust, as an attempt on the part of the United States to govern the destinies of her sister republics. He shows how misunderstandings have often arisen not caused by any desire on the part of the United States to dominate her neighbors, but by reason of unfortunately worded despatches and state documents, which to the Latin-American mind create the impression of aggressiveness and ulterior designs of domination.

It is to be hoped that Mr. Enock will further pursue his studies of the Latin-American republics, as his works offer a happy combination of the best type of guide-book and introduction to the study of Latin-American social and political conditions.

L. S. ROWE.

University of Pennsylvania.

Fagan, J. O. *Labor and the Railroads.* Pp. 164. Price, \$1.00. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1909.

The thought presented in Mr. Fagan's "Confessions of a Railroad Signalman" has been further elaborated and more fully enforced by citation of concrete instances in this later volume. The author's contention is that railway accidents are due to a lax enforcement of rules governing the

employees; that this non-enforcement of discipline by superintendents and managers has been brought about by the employees' unions, which have so tied the hands of the railway officials as to deprive them of effective authority over the men. The Interstate Commerce Commission is, furthermore, said to have lessened the protection afforded by the federal safety appliance acts by appointing union men as supervisors to inspect railway equipment and report companies and men that violate the provisions of those laws. The Pennsylvania Railroad is strongly commended for refusing to sign "schedules" (contracts) with the engineers' and firemen's brotherhoods whereby the company's division superintendent's disciplinary authority over the employees would have been minimized.

Mr. Fagan makes a strong presentation of his contention. The advocate of the union schedule would, however, be able to present a strong argument showing the necessity of protecting the employees by means of contracts defining as specifically as possible the obligations of the company and the men. It is certain that the schedule will not be given up. The point raised by Mr. Fagan is, none the less, one that cannot be ignored. If the public is to be protected against railway accidents, the unions must not be permitted to throw secrecy about the cause of accidents, they must not be allowed to protect their members against the just consequences of their acts; the superintendent and manager must have real authority; and the government must, without fear or favor, give full effect to the safety appliance acts.

EMORY R. JOHNSON.

University of Pennsylvania.

Hammacher, E. *Das philosophisch-ökonomische System des Marxismus.*
Pp. 730. Leipzig: Duncker and Humblot, 1909.

That the interest in Marxian socialism continues to the extent that it does in Germany, as well as elsewhere, must be regarded as a recognition of the ever-growing political importance of the socialist movement. The present work is a voluminous one, written by a privat-docent in philosophy at the University of Bonn. The author remarks in his preface, "I have everywhere endeavored to consider socialism as a whole and to indicate its significance as a philosophy of social life interpreted from the historical perspective. In this connection I have also given Proudhon and Rodbertus careful consideration." The socialist might question the utility of the considerable attention accorded to Proudhon. More justifiable are, in a way, the frequent references to Sombart, and more especially to Kautsky; but it must be remembered that the study is one of Marxism and not only or simply of Marx's works.

The book is divided into three main sections; the first dealing with the evolutionary conceptions and their Hegelian and Feuerbachian connections; the second being a critical analysis of the materialistic interpretation of history, including a detailed application of such an interpretation to the *Grosskapitalismus* of our own day, and the future condition of society; the last section being a critique of Marxian economics, special chapters

being devoted to the theory of value, of surplus value, of crises, etc. The last chapter discusses "socialism as an ethical necessity." Dr. Hammacher concludes that neither the materialistic interpretation nor the Marxian system of socio-economics can stand the test of criticism. This might, perhaps, be admitted, but certainly it would be conducive to sounder conclusions if the numerous scholarly critics (like Sombart, Tugan-Baranowsky and Hammacher, to refer to a few only) and still more numerous superficial critics could agree, even in a fair measure, as to what parts of Marx must be rejected as untenable, and why. Dr. Hammacher, however, is not to be blamed for not attempting to present the impossible, for, as it is, one may sometimes suspect that an intellectual or economic bias on the part of the critic is the real basis of his criticism.

There are numerous passages throughout the book to which economists of classical tendencies as well as those of more modern schools would object, without regard to the author's final conclusions; but the size of the work precludes more detailed reference to these in this place. The book bears the stamp of sincerity of purpose and of German thoroughness. The fact that the author's aim has been to treat the Marxian system as a unified whole gives it a peculiar value, and the philosopher as well as the economist should find the book useful.

CHARLES E. STANGELAND.

Washington, D. C.

Laughlin, J. Lawrence. *Latter-Day Problems.* Pp. vi, 302. Price, \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

The significance of this volume is conspicuously omitted from its title. It is a collection of essays, some of which have already appeared in current publications on modern *economic* problems. The first six chapters—The Hope for Labor Unions, Socialism a Philosophy of Failure, The Abolition of Poverty, Social Settlements, Political Economy, and Christianity and Large Fortunes—"deal with methods to be applied for an improvement in the condition of those classes which have the least of this world's goods, and which most appeal to our sympathies and assistance." The remaining chapters—The Valuation of Railways, Guarantee of Bank Deposits, The Depositor and the Bank, Government *vs.* Bank Issues—deal with technical business management in a limited field of finance.

The book is frankly capitalistic in its spirit and aim, and is a defence of the present system. Remedies for social betterment are shown to lie in the improvement in the moral character of the laborer rather than in the general methods of social production and distribution. Voluntary limitation of the birth rate among the lowest classes will diminish the laborers and consequently raise wages in those groups, while methods of thrift will stimulate savings and enable the workman to join the capitalist class. Labor unions, social settlements and churches find their chief function in raising standards of efficiency and increasing moral stability among the poor.

The defenders of the capitalistic regime could hardly ask for a more logical and forceful presentation of their principles.

J. P. LICHTENBERGER.

University of Pennsylvania.

Liefmann, R. *Beteiligungs- und Finanzierungsgesellschaften.* Pp. x, 495. Price, 12m. Jena: Gustav Fischer, 1909.

This book is a dispassionate study in high finance, and deals with those corporations which issue their own securities in place of the stocks of other corporations. It deals, in a word, with *Effektensubstitutionsgesellschaften*. These fall into two classes: I, *Beteiligungsgesellschaften*, or those which acquire the securities of other corporations (which they have not promoted and financed) for any one of the following purposes: (a) to diminish the risks of investment, as in the English investment trust, or (b) as a means of attracting capital which would not be invested directly by the public in the controlled corporations, a form most common in Germany, or (c) for the purpose of controlling the policy of the subsidiary corporations, as in the American holding company; and II, *Finanzierungsgesellschaften*, which promote and finance the corporations whose stocks they acquire, although they may also have some of the characteristics of the preceding class.

The treatise is not a manual for information concerning specific corporations, but is intended to be primarily theoretical. After a discussion of the stages of economic evolution and much preliminary definition and distinction, a description is given of the leading forms of these corporations in Germany, the United States, England, France, Belgium and Switzerland, together with a statement of the advantages and disadvantages of each form, with a final chapter on economic policy and theory. The description of foreign corporations will be of most interest to American students, for, although the description of conditions here is illuminating, the material is, for the most part, taken from easily accessible sources.

M. O. LORENZ.

Washington, D. C.

Low, A. Maurice. *The American People.* Pp. 446. Price, \$2.25. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1909.

From Dickens down, Englishmen in general have felt competent to criticise America after a visit of some weeks or months at most. Mr. Low brings a judgment of a different sort. His long residence in America, extending over almost a third of a century, and his superior literary and scholastic attainments make his criticism thorough and valuable.

The psychology of a people is a thing difficult for any writer to portray. Mr. Low believes, however, that it "presents no miracle and is reducible to exact terms. There are no wide gaps to be filled by speculative soaring." He analyzes the psychology of the thirteen original colonies, basing his arguments largely upon the economic factors influencing their

settlement. There is an excellent chapter on the influence of the American environment. The Revolution was not a thing of a day. The desire for self-government was unavoidable and was bound to grow, whether the English foreign office had adopted a policy wise or stupid. Englishmen in America naturally became revolutionists.

Massachusetts and Virginia hold the author's attention in a large part of the book. The influence of tobacco culture is especially well brought out, and the connections between South Carolina and rice and cotton growing, between Maryland, Pennsylvania and Rhode Island and religious liberty and between the New England states and commerce, is well emphasized. The discussion of the Puritans and their faith occupies almost half the pages, a division Mr. Low justifies by the great influence the Puritans have exercised not only in America, but on civilization in "all the rest of the world."

It must be admitted that at times the reader feels that the explanations of social phenomena are too easy to be accurate. For example, one doubts whether the carrying of arms in the South is due to the Carolinians' fear of servile revolt. But whatever objections may be raised as to details, the generalizations are usually accurate and give us a fresh view of influences the bearing of which our nearness often leads us to overlook. Mr. Low's work is one which is written in a style which reminds the reader of John Fiske. The discussion is decidedly human; the illustrations are always apt and forceful. The central argument—that America is developing a highly individualistic character, which stamps its people as a new race—is well worked out. The analysis extends in this volume only to the end of the eighteenth century. It is hoped that Mr. Low will continue the work to show the influence of the great formative forces that were introduced by the new immigrations following the Revolution, and the various other economic and political developments that have characterized our national growth.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Pennsylvania.

Murphy, E. G. *The Basis of Ascendancy.* Pp. xxiv, 250. Price, \$1.50.

New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

Five years ago the "Problems of the Present South," by Mr. Murphy, was hailed as one of the best volumes ever written on the subject. This reputation is maintained in "The Basis of Ascendancy." The style is pleasant, the tone optimistic. It is an appeal to all citizens, North as well as South, to recognize the great significance of the presence of the Negro in America; to realize the far reaching effect upon the character and institutions of whites as well as blacks of the measures adopted; and, above all, to see the possibility of better days ahead.

A southerner himself, the author does not hesitate to repeatedly challenge many of the accepted conventions and decisions of the South. He has little sympathy with proposals to keep the Negro ignorant; nor would he deny the suffrage to those who have shown themselves worthy. "It is idle

to talk of the fineness of the old-time Negro who was illiterate. He, and the paternalistic conditions which created him, are gone forever. We must train our present Negroes through the churches and the schools because we have nothing else through which to train them." "In the fundamental sense we can no more make a bi-racial division of our civilization than we can make a bi-racial division of the sunshine, the rain, the returning seasons."

Incapacity must not rule or ruin capacity. The violent reaction against the postbellum situation was based on the fear of this. But the policy of evasion turns back on those who employ it. We cannot have one law for the Negro, another for the white without breaking down all law. "If it is hard to convict a white man of the murder of a Negro, it soon becomes equally hard to convict him of the murder of a white man." In the long run repression of the Negro is impossible—his development must be furthered, not hindered. The time has come for constructive policies.

The Negro race is developing; is finding itself; is becoming self-conscious, self-centered. This integrating force will interest American Negroes in Africa, will open opportunities for large service. So long as despair rules there is little progress. Let hope enter and the race moves forward. To give the Negro great responsibility for his own progress is to steady him.

The strong man, the strong race, is burdened by the weak. Lack of homogeneous population cripples our social institutions. In the South only too often has the local situation caused an eclipse of national policies and interests.

In no uncertain terms are the reconstruction policies condemned—and justly. In this most northern students concur. But the new coercion—the reaction of the South against the Negro is equally unfortunate. Social, race integrity is not threatened by recognition of the civil, political and industrial rights of the Negroes. "No true freedom can retard our freedom." The better spirit of the South must respond to the new situation.

The last chapter, "Ascendancy," is a manly, noble appeal to the South to see the difficulty of to-day in order to realize the hope of to-morrow.

Seldom has it fallen to the reviewer's lot to read pages more accurate in presentation of existing problems; more suggestive of the power of man to surmount his obstacles; or evidencing greater faith in humanity. I can hardly commend the book too highly.

CARL KELSEY.

University of Pennsylvania.

Plehn, Carl C. *Introduction to Public Finance.* Pp. xv, 480. Price, \$1.75. New York: Macmillan Company, 1909.

This book, which now appears in its third and revised edition, should prove useful as a description of the field of public finance and as a compendium of the recognized writers on public finance, yet there is scarcely a chapter which does not contain statements which invite challenge. The book is arranged in the usual conventional order of expenditure, revenue, debt and

administration, although no convincing argument is adduced for the treatment of expenditure in advance of revenue in public economy any more than in private economy. Dr. Plehn is strong in his characterizations of existing methods and practice, but narrow in many of his definitions and classifications. For example, he rejects altogether the distinction between special assessments and fees, even while admitting their striking differences. In another place he concludes that "faculty is the ideal basis of taxation" and may "best be measured by income," yet his advocacy of a multiplex tax system indicates his refusal to accept this "ideal." Again, he brashly calls to witness "the wholesale plunder of the United States treasury for pensions," which would hardly be proper in a text-book, even if true. Dr. Plehn also lets his bias against the protective tariff lead him into several questionable assertions. He has, none the less, condensed an immense amount of valuable information into small compass, and his systematic presentation affords a survey sufficiently thorough to justify it as "an introduction" to the study of public finance.

VICTOR ROSEWATER.

Omaha, Neb.

Powell, E. T. *The Essentials of Self-Government.* Pp. vii, 309. Price, \$1.50. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

Efficient laws to control the choice of the legislature are one of the bases of good constitutional government. The subject treated, the English electoral system is, therefore, one which must interest a large public, especially as English practice has often been pointed to as exemplary. Mr. Powell's excellent analysis and well-thought-out suggestions of reform make this book of great value to all those interested in popular government. The material is about evenly divided between exposition of present conditions and the outline of changes which should be introduced. The latter are so great in number and important that the pros and cons often cannot be discussed in detail, but the critical attitude adopted toward each subject always gives the discussion fairness, even though it is not exhaustive.

The first fifty pages discuss the problem of registration. Annual registers kept by public officials who are to be responsible for omissions should be provided. The tax collectors should aid to see that none escape registration. The author clearly puts too much confidence in the system of practically enforced registration which he outlines. Experiments used elsewhere to force the citizen out of his political indifference have been uniform failures. He also advocates a shorter registration period; just the opposite of what is now thought best by most writers in this country.

The second division treats apportionment and nomination systems. It is by all means the best part of the book. The discussion of present inequalities of representation is excellent. Numerous tables are given to show the shift of population which has made the value of a vote in some districts when compared with others stand as one to eighteen. Reapportionment should be on the basis of electoral strength, not on population, and

should take place decennially on the basis of the census. The example of Canada on this point is cited, apparently the author was not acquainted with the far greater experience of the United States. Representatives should be chosen in districts returning five to nine members, the voting should be by the proportional system—the single transferable vote preferred—and the representatives should be subject to recall, for, it is asserted, under our present system, the people must periodically abdicate their sovereignty to the legislature, an argument that recalls Rousseau.

The third and fourth parts of the book discuss the application of a number of reforms to the English electoral system. Among the more important are regulation of candidatures and election expenses, sandwichmen and bill posting, and the public payment of election expenses, salaries for members of parliament and control of the use of election agents. The additions which should be made to the present laws on corrupt and illegal practices are discussed in detail, and a final chapter gives the rules which should surround the actual casting and counting of the votes. Both on account of its vivid portrayal of the present electoral system of England and for its helpful, if far reaching, suggestions for reform, this book is welcome.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Pennsylvania.

Schönheyder, K. *Kapitalen som faktor i menneskets virksomhed.* Pp. 163. Christiania: H. Aschehoug & Co., 1909.

Dr. Schönheyder's is one of a series of studies published by the faculty of law at the Norwegian University. In this essay on "capital as a factor in human activity" the author devotes the first part to "capital as a productive factor" and the second to "capital as a social factor." His discussions are often unusually original, and he does not hesitate to suggest, if not fully to develop, new lines of thinking. Special chapters are given to considering the wage fund, the Austrian, the productivity and other theories of value. Schönheyder's general criticism of these theories may be stated to be that some are simply new expressions given to older economic conceptions, and that in general too little attention has been given to actual life (dynamics). The author's treatment of his subject is at times difficult to follow, a fact due no doubt in part to originality in his points of view and the limited space he has given to the elaboration of the same. He concludes his book with the now very generally accepted opinion that "the entirely free development of economic conditions involves serious dangers for society as well as capital, and it will be the task of future economists to aid society in the solution of the problem."

CHARLES E. STANGELAND.

Washington, D. C.

Steiner, E. A. *The Immigrant Tide, Its Ebb and Flow.* Pp. 370. Price, \$1.50. New York: F. H. Revell Company, 1909.

A rare combination of qualities is found in the author, literary power, knowledge of many languages, disciplined mind, years of constant contact

with Southeastern Europe, a vast fund of sympathy and great faith in fellow-man. The book teems, therefore, with human interest. Real men and women are described in its pages.

Dr. Steiner's earlier work, "On the Trail of the Immigrant," has been recognized as one of the best discussions of the problem. "The Immigrant Tide" is a companion volume, more sketchy in its make-up. Last year Dr. Steiner took a group of young men to Europe to put them in immediate contact with the people that they might be better fitted to deal with them in this country. Many of the chapters are based on the experiences of this expedition.

Beginning with the outbound trip, Dr. Steiner comments on some of the habits of the old American group which frequents Europe and wonders if they do not constitute quite as serious a menace to the country as the new immigrants themselves. Then he tells us of the steerage passengers, their history, their successes and failures, showing us how those who have lost in the struggle here go back home again.

Once landed, we are conducted over Southern and Eastern Europe. Dr. Steiner comments on the rise of wages owing to the emigration of so many laborers to America. He notes the suspicion of the ruling class who feel that the peasants become "uppish" as we say as a result of life here, less satisfied with old conditions, leaders of discontent. He notes, too, the newer standards of living brought back. One cannot escape the conclusion that, in unrealized ways, we are affecting Europe.

Interpreting the culture of the various races, the author makes the reader feel somewhat *en rapport* with many individuals and families. They become more like men and women—less like despised foreigners. Then he returns to America. He takes us about the country showing the conditions—frequently bad—under which the immigrants live and work. He notes the tragedies in their lives, the influence on their customs and morals. Everywhere there is an appeal to the better group of Americans to understand the stranger within our gates—to give him fair treatment.

Dr. Steiner has no sympathy with the view that those of Southeast Europe are not quite as good as those from the north. He does not advocate unrestricted immigration: is indeed willing to be even more stringent, but he does deplore the prevalent mistreatment and exploitation. He feels that the church is not doing its duty.

The volume is one of great power and value. It will interest and charm the reader. Its philosophy is an appeal to the best within us—its arguments based on unusually rich experience.

CARL KELSEY.

University of Pennsylvania.

Sumner, Helen L. *Equal Suffrage*. Pp. xxxvi, 282. Price, \$2.00. New York: Harper & Bros., 1909.

The author gives in this book an impartial record of the effect of equal suffrage in Colorado. During her two years' study of suffrage in Colorado

she has gathered together a valuable collection of data from which important conclusions can be drawn as to the actual effects of equal suffrage upon politics, upon legislation and upon the women themselves.

The book is divided into two parts. First, a study of the public opinion of Colorado concerning the facts and effects of twelve years of equal suffrage in that state. Miss Sumner has endeavored here to crystallize public opinion by tabulating the answers to over 1200 question blanks circulated among the men and women of that state, some of whom were favorable and some unfavorable to equal suffrage. The second, and more valuable part, consists of another series of tables giving the ascertainable facts concerning the participation or non-participation of women in politics. By an effective citation of statistics the author shows conclusively that the women who vote in Colorado are of the middle and upper classes. The work is strengthened by telling comparisons with the conditions in other states. The investigation as a whole is careful and thoroughly scientific, and it gives a non-partisan yet conclusive sketch of equal suffrage at work.

NELLIE MARGUERITE SEEDS NEARING.

Philadelphia.

Thomas, W. I. *Source Book for Social Origins.* Pp. xvi, 932. Price, \$4.77.

Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1909.

"The study of savage and prehistoric man is one of the most fascinating and important of the social sciences, and at the same time one of the most esoteric. . . . On every score it deserves a wider recognition, and I should be happy if I could assist it to come to its own."

Every careful student realizes the importance of a greater knowledge of the customs, morals, conditions both physical and social, of other people and times. Existing literature is voluminous but scattered, and of great differences in value. Recognizing this, Professor Thomas seeks to put in convenient form some of the best authorities, and to suggest further literature.

The editor's plan is perhaps best shown by a brief analysis in tabular form:

Part I.—The Relation of Society to Geographic and Economic Environment. 114 pages, 8 papers with 4 pages of comment and 6 of bibliography.

Part II.—Mental Life and Education. 282 pages, 10 papers, 2 pages of comment and 14 of bibliography.

Part III.—Invention and Technology. 112 pages, 5 papers, 4 pages of comment and 4 of bibliography.

Part IV.—Sex and Marriage. 97 pages, 6 papers, 4 pages of comment and 5 of bibliography.

Part V.—Art, Ornament and Decoration. 108 pages, 6 papers, 8 pages of comment and 12 of bibliography.

Part VI.—Magic, Religion and Myth. 102 pages, 5 papers, 3 pages of comment and 14 of bibliography.

Part VII.—Social Organization, Morals, The State. 120 pages, 7 papers, 3 pages of comment and 11 of bibliography.

These separate bibliographies are supplemented by a very large general bibliography of fifty-four pages. It is evident that Professor Thomas, aside from the introductory chapter of twenty-four pages and two papers included in the text, has personally contributed little to the make-up of the volume. His comments are briefly explanatory of the significance of the papers or are critical of the methods and statements of the writers. Here his suggestions are excellent.

Many of the best known writers are drawn upon: Ratzel (5 times), Howitt (5), Spencer (4), Spencer and Gillen (4), Mason, Westermarck, Pitt-Rivers, Tyler, Morgan, Boas and Thomas (2 each), and 17 others for single papers.

The selections are excellent. It is hard to see how they could be improved. The volume is well arranged; the index adequate and satisfactory. It is altogether a most useful volume of great value, particularly in the many schools and libraries poorly equipped in these fields. It should find a place in every library and can be widely used. The reviewer heartily concurs in the almost naïve opening sentence of the preface, "This book will be found very interesting if read slowly" and would add—very confusing as to details if read too fast. No one but a master can hastily go through such a mass of evidence without becoming bewildered.

CARL KELSEY.

University of Pennsylvania.

Thompson, John G. *The Rise and Decline of the Wheat Growing Industry in Wisconsin.* Pp. 250. Price, 50 cents. Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1909.

In this, the work which Dr. Thompson submitted as a thesis for the degree of Ph.D., the wheat industry of the State of Wisconsin is traced from its beginnings to the present time. Wisconsin affords a unique field, inasmuch as the industry sprang up with unusual rapidity and then suddenly declined. It is pointed out in detail how it spread over a wide area during the years from 1850 to 1870, and then rapidly and steadily declined.

The causes of this rise and decline are explained. The early rise is attributed to the natural adaptability of the soil, the non-forested condition of the southern and western sections of the state, the availability of markets due to the efforts of the railways, the generous land policy of the government, and the economic and race habits of the early settlers.

The rapid decline is attributed primarily to the movement toward diversified agriculture as favored by the railways, the educational institutions and economic conditions; the fall in price of wheat and rise of railroad rates during the 70's and 80's, and the lack of effective organization among the wheat growers. Diversified agriculture found its foothold in the dairying industry, tobacco, hay, potatoes and grains such as rye, oats and barley.

Later a renewed specialization appeared in some parts of the state in the form of dairying and tobacco, but the wheat industry continued to decline.

The author unfortunately minimizes the effect of soil exhaustion, which every native of large sections of the state knows to be responsible to no small extent for the decline of the industry in those sections. It is for the same reason that some of the later crops such as oats, rye and potatoes are now declining in certain parts of the state. The effect of wheat bugs is likewise, but briefly mentioned, even though they are directly responsible for the practicable absence of wheat growing in many regions which formerly had a large wheat acreage. Aside from these errors the volume is comprehensive and is a contribution to economic history.

G. G. HUEBNER.

University of Pennsylvania.

Washington, Booker T. *The Story of the Negro.* 2 vols. Pp. xiii, 769. Price, \$3.00. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co., 1909.

Dr. Washington's writings are always characterized by his boundless faith in the future of his own race; by an enthusiasm which makes obstacles and difficulties but incentives to greater achievement. There is likewise a vein of humor whose richest nuggets are often stories at the expense of the white man. This makes his volumes altogether interesting and stimulating.

In "The Story of the Negro" the author seeks to recount the trials and development of the people in Africa and America. In no sense is it a formal history, but rather an interpretation of the Negro's life.

Beginning with his childish notions of Africa, the general situation there is sketched in broad outline with constant drawing of moral lessons. Then follows a description of conditions under slavery. We are told of the free Negro, of fugitive slaves, of Negro abolitionists and preachers, of early settlements in the North. The first volume ends with an account of the Negro's share in the Civil War.

The second volume contains discussions of such topics as reconstruction; the Negro as a workman and land owner; the rise of professional classes; crime; schools; secret societies; Negro communities and homes; Negro art; Negro women; social and missionary work. Some of the material has been published in magazines, but much is new. A large part is drawn directly from the author's own experience and is so effectively told that the men and women named receive as it were a personal introduction to the reader.

"Few people, black or white, realize that in the Negro race, as it exists to-day in America, we have representatives of nearly every stage of civilization, from that of the primitive African to the highest modern life and science have achieved. This fact is at once a result and an indication of the rapidity with which he has arisen." This rise Dr. Washington seeks to establish by repeated accounts of individuals and groups which have progressed.

"The Story of the Negro" is, therefore, a description of the achievements

of Negroes, not a statement of the problems created by his presence in America. It is to be highly commended, particularly to all those, white or black, whose faith in the possibility of advance on the part of the Negroes needs to be strengthened.

CARL KELSEY.

University of Pennsylvania.

Wilson, Woodrow. *Division and Reunion, 1829-1909.* Pp. xx, 389. Price, \$1.25. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1909.

This is a new edition of a deservedly popular and widely used text-book, which was first published in 1893. The present edition differs from the original one chiefly by bringing the survey of events down to the present time. Some seventy pages of text have been added. This new matter has not been prepared by Dr. Wilson, but by his colleague, Professor Edward S. Corwin. Chapter XIII of the previous edition has been omitted, and two new chapters covering the period from 1877 to 1909 appear, one dealing with "Individual and Economic Changes," the other entitled "The United States as a World Power," treating of our foreign relations since 1898.

The introductory bibliography has been thoroughly revised, but unfortunately the scheme of revision did not include the text or the bibliographies of the first twelve chapters. Hence a few errors in statement of fact, pointed out by reviews when the work was first published, still appear, and references to the newer works have not been included in these bibliographies.

Professor Corwin should be congratulated for the very successful manner in which he has accomplished a difficult task. He has attained the high standard set by Dr. Wilson both as to scholarship and literary form. With a thorough insight into the tendencies of the period he has contributed a keen analysis and a clear and forcible presentation of the salient facts. His narrative is particularly fair and impartial without the suppression of judgment of men and events. He shows the dominating place that industrial and economic questions have attained in domestic affairs since 1877. This revision has enhanced the value of a text-book already recognized as the best of its kind for the period covered.

HERMAN V. AMES.

University of Pennsylvania.

ANNUAL REPORT FOR 1909 OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE.

The annual business meeting of the Academy was held on Monday, January 17, 1910. The terms of Dr. L. S. Rowe, Dr. Carl Kelsey and Mr. Stuart Wood as directors having expired January 1, 1910, they were re-elected for the ensuing three years.

From the report of the Board of Directors the following extracts are reproduced to show the work and growth of the Academy during 1909:

PUBLICATIONS.

Special Volumes.

January—Industrial Education.
March—Labor and Wages.
May—The Conservation of Natural Resources.
July—Race Improvement in the United States.
September—Chinese and Japanese in America.
November—American Business Conditions.

Supplements.

March—The Child Workers of the Nation. Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the National Child Labor Committee.
July—The Consumer's Control of Production—The Work of the National Consumers' League.

MEETINGS.

January 30—"The Nation's Interest in the Nation's Children."

Dr. Samuel M. Lindsay.
Hon. Ben B. Lindsey.
Homer Folks.
Mrs. Florence Kelley.

March 27—"The Future of Cuba."

Hon. Charles E. Magoon.
Major-General Leonard Wood.
General James H. Wilson.

April 16-17—Thirteenth Annual Meeting (five sessions)—General Topic, "Race Improvement in the United States."

First Session—"The Relative Importance of Heredity and Environment in Race Improvement."

Dr. Abraham Jacobi.
Dr. Carl Kelsey.
Dr. Dudley Allen Sargent.
Dr. Charles B. Davenport.
Alexander Johnson.

Second Session—"Influence of City Environment on National Life and Vigor."

Dr. Walter Wyman.
Dr. Luther H. Gulick.
Dr. Woods Hutchinson.
Hon. Herbert Parsons.
Dr. Booker T. Washington.

Third Session—"Clinical Study and Treatment of Normal and Abnormal Development."

Prof. Lightner Witmer.
Dr. O. P. Cornman.
Otto T. Mallery.
James E. Gorman.
Edwin D. Solenberger.

Fourth Session—"Obstacles to Race Progress in the United States."

Very Rev. Thomas J. Shahan.
Dr. Charles L. Dana.
Dr. Ethelbert D. Warfield.
Champe S. Andrews.
Mrs. Florence Kelley.
Dr. J. P. Lichtenberger.

Fifth Session—"The Relation of Immigration to Race Improvement."

Hon. William P. Dillingham.
Hon. William S. Bennet.
John Mitchell.
Prof. William Z. Ripley.

October 28—"Commercial Relations Between the United States and Japan."

Baron Eiichi Shibusawa.
Baron Naibu Kanda.
Hon. Kokichi Midzuno.
Motosado Zumoto.

November 6—"The Development of Germany as a World Power."

Hon. Charlemagne Tower.
Count J. H. von Bernstorff.

December 14—"The Significance of the Awakening of China."

Dr. Wu Ting-fang.
Charles R. Flint.

MEMBERSHIP.

The membership of the Academy on the 31st of December, 1909, including subscribers, was 5,047. Of these 1,060 are residents of Philadelphia; 3,678 are residents of the United States outside of Philadelphia, and 309 are foreign members. Compared with the membership on the 31st of December, 1908, we find that in the Philadelphia membership there is a gain of 24; in the membership in the United States outside of Philadelphia 465; and in the foreign membership 7, or a total gain of 496.

During the year the Academy has lost through death 65 of its members.

The treasurer's report is appended.

SUMMARY OF INCOME AND EXPENDITURES FOR THE YEAR ENDED DECEMBER 31.

1909.

Cash on hand January 1, 1909 \$1,965.84

Income.

Annual membership fees	\$20,429.68	
Life memberships	396.50	
Special contributions	1,735.00	
Subscriptions to publications and sales thereof	7,830.50	
Income from investments	2,069.07	
Interest on deposits	84.27	
	<hr/>	32,545.02
		<hr/>
		\$34,510.86

Expenditures.

Clerical assistance	\$5,148.77	
Printing, stationery and postage in connection with publication of ANNALS and with general correspondence	17,387.89	
Expenses of meetings	2,310.71	
	<hr/>	\$24,847.37
Investments purchased	1,918.11	
	<hr/>	26,765.48
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Cash on hand December 31, 1909		\$7,745.38

SUPPLEMENT TO
THE ANNALS OF THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL³
AND SOCIAL SCIENCE
MARCH, 1910

CHILD EMPLOYING INDUSTRIES

PROCEEDINGS OF THE SIXTH ANNUAL MEETING
OF THE
NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

PHILADELPHIA
THE AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE
1910

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habits are being formed, and health may be permanently affected. A fair show for these boys is what we ask, and it is not giving them a fair show to permit them to do work unsuitable in type or performed at unsuitable hours and in unhealthy conditions. Do not be influenced by the arguments that these boys have all to support "widowed mothers." That is an exploded theory. Listen to one of the explosions; there are many others. A few years ago Miss Jane Addams presented these interesting figures, the result of a careful study in a manufacturing town. Two thousand five hundred children were employed in this town, and it was said their earnings were necessary for the support of widowed mothers. These were the facts—only sixty-six had widowed mothers, and of only twenty-three could it be said that their earnings were necessary for the support of their mothers. Please let that figure, twenty-three, banish any idea you may have that this proposed legislation will, if enacted, bring a large number of people to charity. It will do nothing of the sort. And in the few instances that may occur, is it not better economy for charitable folk to invest money in the care of those families and save to the Commonwealth the health and morals of its future citizens?

MR. BROWN: I have no more speakers to call in regard to this bill. The situation is this, if I may just sum it up briefly: that the evil in the messenger service is abundantly proved by the testimony and report of Mr. Barrows; that even outside messenger service, while it is not so particularly bad or so horribly bad to allow children to work at night, it is true, as Miss Higgins said, that night work is never beneficial; it leads to nothing; the sort of work that helps the child is never done at night. In the second place, it is bad for the child to be up at night and working at night instead of going to bed and to sleep. And, consequently, we put in the particular bill asking that no kind of employment shall be permitted children under sixteen.